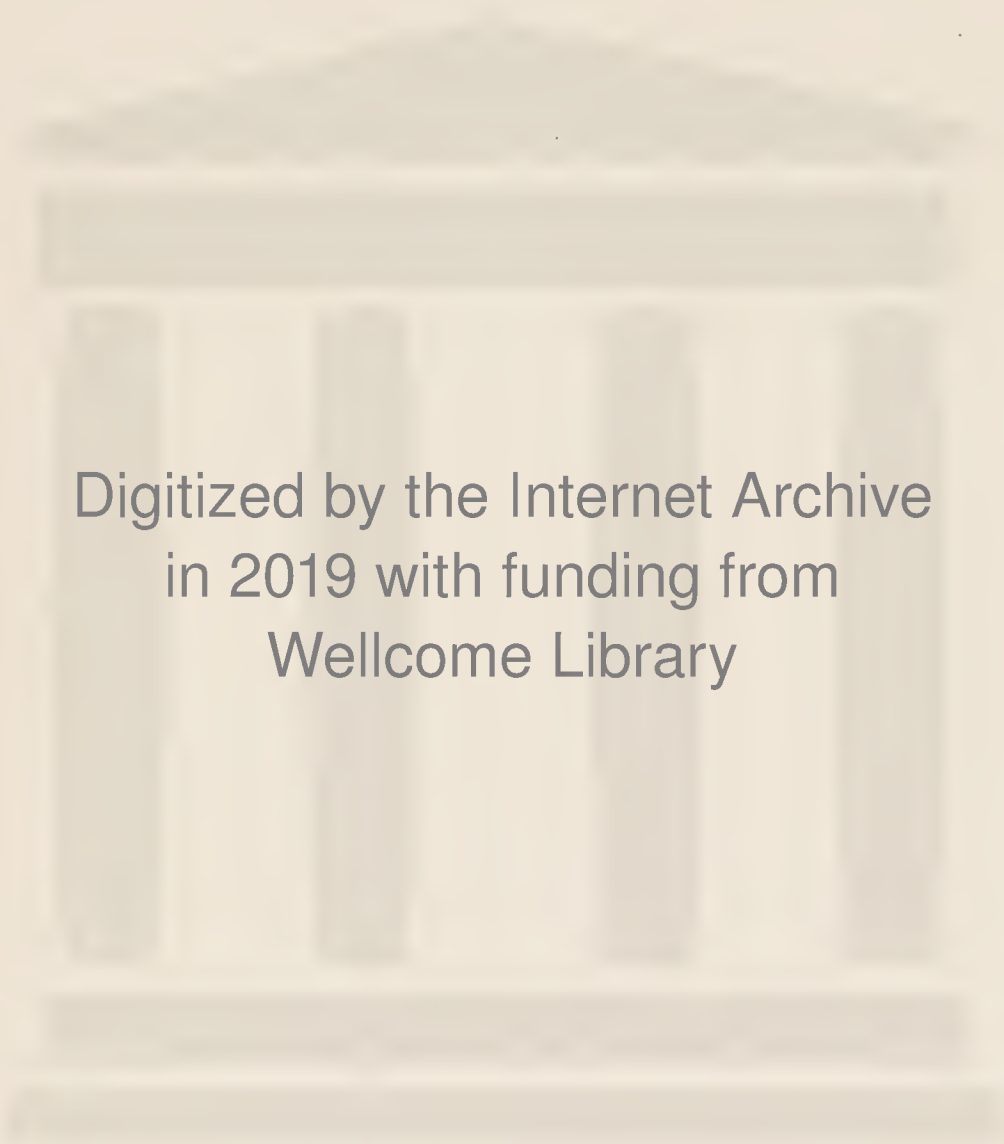
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THE

ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR A VIEW OF THE

HISTORY, POLITICS, AND LITERATURE,

For the YEAR 1767.

THE FOURTH EDITION.


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PREFACE.

THE year of which we treat, notwithſtanding the peaceable aſpect of the times, has not been unproductive of events which claim a conſiderable degree of attention. Of theſe, the expulſion of the Jeſuits from Spain and Naples, is not the leaſt extraordinary, nor likely to be the leaſt conſiderable in its conſequences. The affairs of Poland have attracted much of the general attention of Europe; and, it is to be hoped, are now ſettled upon an happy and permanent baſis. The origin of the late diſputes, the paſt and preſent ſtate of the Diſſidents, and many particularities relative to the hiſtory and government of that country, which were requiſite to be known, to form a proper judgment of thoſe tranſactions, were but little conſidered or underſtood in this part of the world. We have therefore given our readers all the ſatisfaction on thoſe heads, which the materials that we could procure would afford, and the plan of our work allow. The ſubject is indeed peculiarly intereſting:

intereſting: While our humanity is deeply engaged in the cauſe of the Diſſidents, we cannot but lament the fatality by which a great nation is ſurrounded in its capital by a foreign army; and the ſenators of a republic, that was once free and independent, carried off by a military force for a diſcuſſion of their own affairs. This is a ſubject, that, notwithſtanding the rectitude and integrity of the motives which guided thoſe tranſactions, affords a full opportunity for the moſt deep and ſerious reflection.

Our home affairs have not been deficient in matters ſufficiently intereſting. Of theſe we give ſuch an account as we hope will be agreeable to our readers; and have endeavoured to preſerve that impartiality, which it will be always ſo much our wiſh to ſupport. And it ſhall ever be our greateſt happineſs, to have any opportunity of ſhewing the grateful ſenſe we entertain of the repeated indulgence which we have ſo conſtantly experienced from the Public.



THE ANNUAL REGISTER, For the YEAR 1767.

THE HISTORY OF EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

General aspect of affairs. Present appearances pacific. Some ancient causes of contention removed. France. Holland. General state of the North. Germany. Italy. Expulsion of the Jesuits from Naples and Parma. The interest of the court of Rome declining in Italy. Portugal. Scarcity of corn. Friendly intercourse subsisting between the learned.

WE observe with pleasure, that the event has happily justified our prognostication of last year; and that the general tranquillity of Europe is not in any immediate danger of being disturbed. A spirit of improvement in the arts of peace, in manufactures, commerce, and the elegant embellishments of life, seems to have taken place, for a while at least, of that rage of conquest, which had for so many centuries plunged the different parts of the great European commonwealth into all the calamities of devastation and war. That martial disposition, which so entirely possessed the people of those ages, was the natural consequence of the hardy bodies, the active and intrepid minds, of the western and northern nations,

tions, when not otherwiſe engaged by a cloſe attention to the uſeful, or mellowed by a knowledge of the fine arts.

It may now appear late to look back to the ſubverſion or change of the feudal ſyſtem, and from thence to derive reaſons for prognoſticating the approach of a leſs martial age. This change was not indeed immediately productive of ſo happy an effect, Many, however, of the cauſes of ancient quarrels were certainly removed, by the different modifications which that ſyſtem underwent in moſt of the countries of Europe. The two laſt centuries were (partly through accident, and partly from thoſe epidemic paſſions, which have been obſerved at particular æras to poſſeſs the minds of great bodies of mankind) ſo peculiarly fertile in producing new cauſes of diſſenſion, that the conſequences naturally to be expected from the decline of the feudal government could not be perceived amidſt the continual din of freſh diſputes. It may be unneceſſary to recapitulate thoſe cauſes of diſſenſion; many of them are generally known. Religion, or the pretence to it, had its full ſhare amongſt them. The uncertain rights of ſucceſſion in moſt countries, together with the avidity with which all mankind were ſeized to grapple at the treaſures of the new world, were ſuch ſeeds of contention, as ſerved, along with many others, to keep Europe in continual agitation.

Several of the principal of thoſe cauſes, and happily, ſome of thoſe which occaſioned the greateſt miſchief, are now no more. The violence of religious animoſity; that bitterneſs of zeal, which ſet mankind to the deſtruction of each other's bodies, for the ſalvation of their ſouls, is not only worn out, but almoſt forgotten. Succeſſions, boundaries, and rights of government, are fixed upon a more known and ſettled foundation than ever they were before; and commercial nations have diſcovered a more ſucceſsful and happy method of procuring gold, than by digging it themſelves from the mine, or forcing it from thoſe that do.

Many other ſources of contention of a later date, together with ſome miſtaken notions in politics, which have had their day and done ſufficient miſchief, are exhauſted. Some juſt cauſes of contention are alſo removed. The ideas attending a balance of power, ſeem to be at preſent very different from what they have been formerly. The dread of univerſal monarchy appears to be much abated, if not entirely at an end. With regard to England, to our happineſs, the cauſes of thoſe fears which were once ſo prevalent, with reſpect to the proteſtant ſucceſſion; the danger of rebellions within, or invaſions from without, from that cauſe, are ſo entirely vaniſhed, that they only ſerve to endear to us our preſent ſecurity.

Theſe circumſtances ſeem in ſome ſort pledges of a greater tranquillity to our poſterity, than we or our anceſtors have enjoyed. However, it muſt be confeſſed that all ſpeculations of this kind, however plauſible, are in their nature extremely uncertain. The natural inconſtancy of mankind, the ſport which fortune ſeems at ſome times to make of every ſyſtem, deſtroying in a day, or an hour, the beſt laid foundations, and trampling the labour of ages, and the wiſeſt

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inſtitutions in the duſt; all theſe may forbid the hopes of a laſting permanency to any ſyſtem of tranquillity, let the preſent appearances be ever ſo ſerene.

It muſt be admitted that this age ſeems to have a cauſe of contention more particularly its own, and which cannot fail to ſupply, in ſome degree, thoſe which are now by time and change of manners extinguiſhed. The deſire of naval power, which at preſent acts ſo ſtrongly upon many of the nations in Europe, will generate daily diſputes, and muſt become a fruitful ſource of diſſenſion. The ſpirit of commerce will not be confined to the acquiſitions of induſtry. The new adventurers in this field will encroach upon the old, while the ſame paſſion will act as powerfully with the old poſſeſſors, not to relinquiſh any of thoſe profits which uſually came into their hands, and to which they will think that long preſcription has given them a right.

With reſpect to other matters, the general ſtate of affairs in Europe has ſuffered no material change ſince the concluſion of our laſt volume. The ſame cloſe union and alliance ſtill ſubſiſts between the different branches of the houſe of Bourbon. The friendſhip and union between that family and the houſe of Auſtria, is ſtill more cloſely cemented by a marriage between the young king of Naples, and a daughter of the Empreſs Queen. The hopes of this alliance might indeed have been fruſtrated in a leſs numerous family, by the death of the Archduchеſs Maria Joſepha, who was ſeized with the ſmall-pox in a few days after her being married by proxy and declared Queen of Naples; but upon this occaſion it made no great change, and the young Prince has been ſince contracted to her next ſiſter the Archduchеſs Caroline, who is about a year younger.

15th Oct. 1767.

Unnatural as the preſent friendſhip and alliance between thoſe ancient and hereditary enemies, the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, may appear, and dangerous as the effects of it might at firſt ſeem to many of their neighbours; it is not perhaps impoſſible, but it may contribute to preſerve that tranquillity, which ſeemed to be ſo much endangered by it. This will appear the leſs problematical, if we reflect on the many wars in which the bickerings and enmity of theſe two families have engaged for near two centuries the reſt of Europe. Neither does this alliance appear ſo very formidable to its neighbours, as it might have done in another ſituation of things. The great weight which has accumulated in the northern balance of late years, may well prevent the ſcale from preponderating exceſſively in their favour.

It does not at preſent appear, that any of the three powers in queſtion are diſpoſed, or indeed in a condition to diſturb the public repoſe. France has been long a loſer by her wars, nor do the late trials ſhe has made of her ſtrength, comparatively with that of her neighbours, give the leaſt encouragement to her ſeeking for new. The ſyſtem of Europe is much changed ſince thoſe victorious days of Lewis the XIVth, when he was ſo much the terror of it. Other nations have gained great additional ſtrength, whilſt France has without queſtion rather loſt

ground; yet it must be owned, not in such a degree, but that her great natural resources, and the very valuable and improveable colonies she is still possessed of, will always make her very respectable, if not formidable. At present she is loaded with a very heavy debt, which will require length of time, joined with strict œconomy and close attention to her finances, to discharge. Nor will her commerce, though greatly recovered, suddenly forget the shocks it received in the last war. Agriculture has, through a series of mismanagement, been long on the decline in that country; it was the error of the famous Colbert, that he wanted to form the French into a nation of manufacturers, and forgot that agriculture is the principal strength of a state. The French ministry, as well as the nation, seem now fully sensible of this error; and agriculture meets with all that encouragement and attention which it so justly merits. It will, however, require length of time, and all the leisure of peace, to bring it to any degree near the perfection to which it is capable of arriving.

Upon the whole it is evident, that nothing can be so essential to the interest of France, as the continuation of peace; and that they must be the most pernicious politics, which could at present urge it to enter wantonly into a war.

With respect to England, France seems at present to be in a state of perfect good neighbourhood; nor is there any apparent cause of quarrel likely to disturb this harmony. It may not perhaps be quite visionary to imagine that the violent animosity and national prejudice, which has so long subsisted between the two nations, is in some degree wearing off; and it is observable, that more French of distinction have visited England since the last war, than at any other period since the English lost their great possessions in that country.

The most interesting event which the past year has produced in Holland, has been the marriage of the Prince Stadtholder with the Princess Royal of Prussia. Nothing could be more pleasing to the whole republic than this marriage, nor could any thing happen of a more interesting nature; the public and private rejoicings they made, and the marks of respect and regard which they shewed the princess upon every occasion, sufficiently testified the sense they had of it. By this marriage the commonwealth has entered into a nearer connection with a great, a powerful, and a neighbouring prince, whose disposition, if not a certain friend, was always to be dreaded; and the vicinity of whose territories to those of the states, would always furnish sufficient matter for altercation, whenever he chose to seek for it. At the same time this marriage is justly to be looked upon in a very interesting light with respect to the Protestant system in general, and to connect that chain of union, which it will always be so much the common interest to preserve between the maritime and northern powers, and the Protestant princes of Germany.

In the north, affairs at present wear the most benign aspect. The great disputes in Poland about the Dissidents, which seemed pregnant with so much danger to the general repose, are, through the weighty and effectual mediation of the

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great powers, who by treaty as well as connection were intereſted in their conſequences, brought into a train of being ſettled upon the moſt permanent and happy footing.

Germany has offered no matter of political obſervation during the courſe of the preſent year. The Emperor and King of Pruſſia ſpend the ſummers, either in reviewing their armies, or in making progreſſes through different parts of their dominions; by which they become eye-witneſſes of the improvements that are requiſite to be made, the encouragement that is neceſſary to be given, and of the diſtreſſes and wants of their ſubjects. Notwithſtanding this attention to domeſtic and internal happineſs, the two great powers of the empire are far from being negligent of their military departments; the ſword ſeems only to ſlumber, but does not ſleep, and their armies are kept compleat, and in the beſt condition. The Empreſs Queen has publiſhed an edict, whereby the ſoldiers in all her armies are allowed and even encouraged to marry, a corrective in ſome degree to the political miſchiefs attendant on thoſe extenſive military eſtabliſhments.

Turning our eyes to the ſouthward, the ſcene is there alſo entirely pacific. Indeed the new Dey of Algiers had made ſome extraordinary demands upon the republic of Venice: among the reſt, beſides the payment of an exorbitant ſum of money, he inſiſted that his corſairs ſhould have free liberty to cruize in the gulf of Venice, and to take the ſhips of any nation with whom he was not bound by treaty; with this extraordinary condition annexed, that if any of his cruizers ſhould happen to be taken, the republic ſhould repair the loſs in ready money.

Theſe diſhonourable propoſals were refuſed with a proper diſdain by the ſenate; and as the Dey of Algiers had broken the peace, and impriſoned their conſul, they equipped a ſquadron of men of war, which they diſpatched to Algiers, under the command of Admiral Emo, to bring him to reaſon. The Dey continued obſtinate; upon which the admiral, according to his orders, immediately declared war againſt him, and ſailed out of the harbour to fulfil his inſtructions, which were to block up the port, and deſtroy all the Algerine corſairs he could meet with.

Theſe vigorous reſolutions ſoon brought the Dey to temper, and indeed to a ſubmiſſion as mean as his demands had been inſolent; he found himſelf under a neceſſity of making uſe of the mediation of the Britiſh conſul, to procure a renewal of the peace upon the original terms.

The other parts of Italy have afforded little remarkable, except the expulſion of the Jeſuits from Naples and Parma; as theſe events are intimately connected with, or may rather be looked upon as conſequences of, the meaſures which had been already taken in Spain to the ſame purpoſe, we ſhall include them under that head; as well as the ineffectual remonſtrances made by the court of Rome in their favour. The edict which has been paſſed by the regency of Parma, with reſpect to eccleſiaſtical affairs, and which almoſt totally ſecludes the Roman ſee from all juriſdiction in that duchy,

together with the conſequences, which are ſaid to be an excommunication, will find their proper place in the tranſactions of the enſuing year. The power and intereſt of the court of Rome is daily loſing ground in Italy; where other ſtates, beſides thoſe we have mentioned, are taking meaſures to circumſcribe it. The government of Milan, which includes the Auſtrian Lombardy, has publiſhed a law, by which all the rights which the pope or the biſhops have hitherto exerciſed over eccleſiaſtics, either with regard to their effects or their perſons, is transferred to a council, eſtabliſhed for that purpoſe at Milan. All eccleſiaſtics are obliged to ſell the eſtates which they have become poſſeſſed of ſince the year 1722; and no ſubject, whether eccleſiaſtic or ſecular, is permitted to go to Rome to ſolicit any favour, except letters of indulgence, without the conſent of the ſaid council.

This law is the ſame as that which was publiſhed at Venice under the pontificate of Benedict XIV. and which occaſioned ſo many debates, that the Republic was obliged to aboliſh it in the beginning of the pontificate of Clement XIII. but the preſent law is paſſed at a period much more favourable to the independency of ſovereigns.

Portugal has afforded but little material in the courſe of the paſt year. Whether from ſome miſtaken notion in politics, or from ſome national prejudice, or whatever other cauſe, is uncertain; but the preſent prime miniſter in that country has taken every occaſion, during his adminiſtration, of diſcouraging, reſtraining, and diſtreſſing the Britiſh factories and commerce in that kingdom. This conduct ſeems the more wholly unaccountable, as the very exiſtence of that nation as an independent ſtate has ſo long and ſo often depended upon the powerful protection of Great Britain; which has alſo, upon every other occaſion, always acted the part of a moſt faithful ally and generous friend. If the advantages ariſing from the commerce between the two nations were not mutual, this conduct might admit of ſome plea in its juſtification; but the contrary is evidently ſhewn, by the great preference which has been ſo long given by England to the Portugueſe wines, for which they could find no other market, and the conſequent immenſe conſumption of them in theſe countries. Many have with reaſon been ſurprized at the ſupineneſs of the Britiſh miniſtry, in putting up ſo long with the frequent oppreſſions, inſults, and indignities, which have been ſo repeatedly offered to the Engliſh merchants in that country. Nor have they been leſs ſurprized at the temerity of the Portugueſe miniſter, in venturing to rouſe the indignation of a nation, which could ſo eaſily and ſo effectually do itſelf ample juſtice.

The irregularity and inclemency of the ſeaſons for ſome years paſt, in different parts of Europe, has occaſioned an uncertainty and great deficiency in the crops of ſeveral countries, by which the poor have ſuffered great diſtreſſes. The eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and ſome other parts of Italy, have been ſeverely affected by this calamity, and were it not for that happy effect

effect of navigation and commerce, by which the wants of one nation are ſupplied from the ſuperabundance of another, famine would have thinned the race of mankind in many places. England, which uſually ſupplied its neighbours with ſuch immenſe quantities of grain, and allowed a conſiderable bounty on the exportation of it, has been a ſufferer from the ſame cauſe; and it has required the utmoſt attention of the legiſlature, to guard againſt and prevent the dreadful conſequences attending it.

It gives us pleaſure to obſerve, as a diſtinction peculiar to the preſent age, the friendly intercourſe, harmony, and free communication of knowledge, which at preſent ſubſiſts between the learned of all the countries in Europe; and which is not interrupted by the ſquabbles or wars between their reſpective ſtates. This good diſpoſition does not only add greatly to the advancement of knowledge and learning, but will alſo have a happy effect in wearing off thoſe illiberal prejudices, and inveterate animoſities, with which, to the misfortune of mankind, they are ſo apt to regard all thoſe whom they do not know, and who do not form a part of the ſame particular community, or ſpeak the ſame language with themſelves. This liberal intercourſe, together with the continual tranſlation of books from one language to another, will by degrees bring mankind in ſome meaſure acquainted, and it is to be hoped, wear off a great part of that hearty ill-will which they bore to each other as ſtrangers.

CHAP. II.

Strict attention of the government of Sweden to prevent luxury. An important law made for enlarging the liberty of the preſs in that kingdom. Denmark. Great preparations making in Ruſſia to obſerve the tranſit of the planet Venus over the ſun: The Empreſs writes a letter upon that ſubject to the academy at Peterſburg. Deputies from all the provinces of the empire are ſummoned to Moſcow, to form a new code of laws. State of affairs in Turky. Encouragement given by the Grand Seignior, to introduce the art of printing in his dominions. The piratical ſtates of Barbary refuſe to pay the ancient tribute to the Porte. An inſurrection in the province of Montenero.

IN Sweden, the whole attention of the diet, as well as the miniſtry, is directed to the improvement of their manufactures, the encouragement of agriculture, and the reſtriction within the narroweſt limits of every kind of foreign ſuperfluity. The ſumptuary laws, and thoſe againſt every ſpecies of luxury, are put in execution without diſtinction of age or quality; and it ſeems to be laid down as a maxim, to enforce the moſt rigid private, as well as public œconomy.

This principle has been purſued to the minuteſt detail, and enforced with the greateſt rigour.

A counſellor of ſtate, who had neglected to have a velvet border ſtript off a cloak, which he had worn for many years, was ſummoned before the tribunal, whoſe province it is to put the edict againſt luxury in force, and received a ſevere reprimand from thoſe grave judges for the miſdemeanor. A lady alſo of the firſt quality, was obliged to appear before the ſame tribunal, and underwent an equal cenſure for drinking a diſh of chocolate in her box at the playhouſe.

Among theſe regulations, many of which ſeem of a trifling nature, one has been made of the greateſt importance; a law for enlarging the liberty of the preſs. By this edict, all perſons have liberty to write and reaſon, on all ſubjects in general, and to publiſh their opinions. The laws of the kingdom, their utility, or their bad effects, are ſubject to diſcuſſion and cenſure. All alliances, ancient and modern, in which the kingdom is engaged, and all new ones which may be hereafter propoſed, or even concluded, are ſubject to a free enquiry, and to have the good or bad conſequences attending them pointed out.

In order that the public may receive the moſt authentic information upon all theſe points, every perſon has a right to demand, of the different colleges eſtabliſhed for the adminiſtration of public buſineſs, from the ſenate to the courts of the loweſt juriſdiction, a communication of the regiſters or journals, wherein all their deciſions are entered. The courts are obliged to keep theſe journals very correct; and the debates, the different opinions upon each ſubject, the deciſions in every cauſe, with the reaſons for them, are to be inſerted. Any perſon, in whatſoever office, that refuſes to communicate theſe regiſters, is to loſe his place.

The ſenate alone has an excluſive privilege of not communicating its debates upon foreign matters; which it may for a time be requiſite to keep ſecret. Every perſon has liberty, during the ſeſſions of the diet, to make obſervations on the debates and reſolutions of each deputation of the ſtates, concerning any buſineſs, whether general or particular, except ſuch as regard the immediate adminiſtration of government; and may print his obſervations on the ſubject. And to facilitate a free enquiry, the king is to get an exact account of the ſituation of the ſtate in every department, made out and printed, before the meeting of each diet.

There are however ſome reſtrictions, which will ſufficiently guard againſt the licentiouſneſs of authors. No perſon is to write againſt the eſtabliſhed religion of the kingdom, nor againſt the fundamental political conſtitution, nor the rights of the different orders of the ſtate. Perſonal ſatires and paſquinades, contrary to the reſpect due to crowned heads, or injurious to the reputation of private perſons, are ſtrictly forbid.

The printer is ordered to inſert the author's name in the title-page of each book; in which caſe, the author alone is liable to be brought to an account for any exceptionable paſſage; but if the printer neglects this injunction, he is to be conſidered as the author, and is an-

anſwerable for the book. There is however an exception, that if a writer has particular reaſons for not publiſhing his name, his leaving it in writing with the printer, to be produced if legally called for, will diſcharge the latter from all the conſequences. This liberty, that is granted to the public, of inveſtigating the principles upon which their own buſineſs is conducted, and of animadverting, as well upon the acts of the ſenate, as upon thoſe of the courts of juſtice, and the other departments of the ſtate, will be ſo great a check upon the conduct of them all, and attended with ſuch manifeſt advantages to the people, that it requires no comment to explain them, and is ſuch a precedent as may well deſerve the attention of other ſtates.

A general ſpirit of improvement ſeems to reign through the north. The young king of Denmark appears to ſet out with all thoſe diſpoſitions which can contribute to make his people happy, and the ſtate reſpectable.

His Majeſty is ſaid to have a ſcheme in agitation to reſtore the peaſants in his dominions to ſome ſhare of their natural liberties; in which, if he ſucceeds, he will acquire great honour; and by granting to the lower and more numerous part of his ſubjects the enjoyment of perſonal freedom, will make amends to the country for the loſs of their political conſtitution.

The Empreſs of Ruſſia ſtill proceeds on the ſame enlarged and enlightened plan, which we have had occaſion heretofore ſo much to commend. She ſtill continues to cultivate and encourage the arts and ſciences; to make her empire an aſylum to the learned and ingenious; and to reform the manners and inſtruct the minds of the people, through the extent of its moſt diſtant provinces.

The tranſit of the planet Venus, over the ſun, which is to happen in the ſummer of 1769, has added a new opportunity of ſhewing as well her munificence, as the attention ſhe pays to aſtronomy. This great princeſs wrote a letter from Moſcow with her own hand, to Count Wolodimer Orlow, director of the academy of ſciences at Peterſburgh; wherein ſhe deſires the academy to inform her of the moſt proper places in her dominions for the making of thoſe obſervations; with an offer to ſend workmen, &c. and to conſtruct buildings in all thoſe places, which the academy may think proper for the purpoſe, and to grant every other aſſiſtance to the undertaking which it may require. She alſo deſired, if there was not a ſufficient number of aſtronomers in the academy to make obſervations in all the places required, to give her notice, that ſhe might ſend a proper number of the officers of her marine, to qualify themſelves, under the eye of the profeſſors in the academy, for that undertaking.

Such is the extent of this vaſt empire, that the obſervations which are to be made, both on the tranſit and exit of this planet, the one in the frozen regions towards the pole, and the other on the borders of the Caſpian ſea, are to be made within its own limits; to ſome part of which, aſtro-

aſtronomers from every part of Europe are preparing to go to behold that remarkable event.

We obſerve with pleaſure, upon this occaſion, that Engliſh artificers preſerve the rank they have hitherto held in the mechanics ſubſervient to this ſcience. The academy at Peterſburgh has applied to a member of the royal ſociety of London, to procure the neceſſary inſtruments for the purpoſe of proceeding ſucceſsfully in that important obſervation. Mr. Ramouſky, who was the writer upon this occaſion, candidly acknowledges the great joy of the academy, and their obligations to Mr. Short, for procuring them thoſe inſtruments; and confeſſes their doubts of being able to anſwer the views of the Empreſs, till they had received his letter. Our readers will ſee two letters upon this occaſion, in the Appendix to the Chronicle.

With reſpect to internal policy; the Empreſs of Ruſſia has undertaken a great and arduous taſk, and worthy of an exalted mind. The laws of this vaſt empire were voluminous to a degree of the greateſt abſurdity, were perplexed, inſufficient, in many caſes contradictory, and ſo loaded with precedents, reports, caſes, and opinions, that they afforded an eternal ſcene of altercation, and were ſcarcely to be reconciled or underſtood by the very profeſſors of them. The particular laws of the different provinces were alſo continually interfering and claſhing, and cauſed ſuch confuſion, that the whole preſented an endleſs chaos, and effaced almoſt every trace of original ſyſtem or deſign.

This Augean ſtable the empreſs has determined to clean; to which purpoſe ſhe ſummoned deputies from every province in the empire to attend her at Moſcow, there to form an entire and new code of laws for the government of the whole. The ſucceſs, attending this patriotic attempt, will, we hope, make a part of the ſubject of our future obſervations.

We have already had an opportunity of taking notice of the good qualities of the preſent Grand Seignior; his humanity to his brothers, and the perfect and friendly good neighbourhood he has obſerved in all the troubles of Poland, are much to his honour. He continues to give freſh opportunities of extolling his character, and has in a recent inſtance again departed from the rigid policy of the Porte, by admitting the young prince of Wallachia to ſucceed his father in that office. He has had alſo an opportunity of ſhewing his humanity and benevolence, on occaſion of one of his men of war which took fire in the harbour of Conſtantinople, and was the cauſe of a great many ſhips belonging to his ſubjects being conſumed. Upon this occaſion, though it was after midnight, he attended in perſon, and gave his orders with the greateſt activity, to prevent the farther dreadful effects of the conflagration; and gave directions that the unhappy ſufferers ſhould be paid their full loſſes out of his treaſury.

But the particular circumſtance of his life, which may poſſibly preſerve his name with great honour to poſterity, when even the cruel and ferocious conqueſts of his predeceſſors are loſt in oblivion,

vion, is the encouragement he has given to the introduction of the art of printing in his dominions. He has alſo iſſued orders for the tranſlating of ſeveral of the moſt valuable books from the European languages into the Turkiſh. It will not require the aid of a very warm imagination, in ſome degree to conceive the great revolutions in the manners of the people, and in the policy of the ſtate, which the introduction of learning into that mighty empire might probably occaſion. Upon the whole, this prince's reign has been hitherto marked with a lenity, gentleneſs, and equity, which have been till now but little experienced under the Ottoman line.

The piratical ſtates of Barbary have entirely thrown off that dependance which, ever ſince the days of the famous Barbaroſſa, for above two hundred years, they have had on the Turkiſh empire. A Seraſkier, who was ſent by the Porte to Algiers, to demand twenty years tribute, which was then due, was anſwered by the Dey, that he was firmly reſolved, not only to refuſe to diſcharge the arrear, but alſo to pay any tribute for the future: that the ſtate of Algiers was abſolutely free and independant of the Porte; that it ſtood in no need of the Porte's protection; and that he, the Seraſkier, might return to Conſtantinople with that anſwer. The Seraſkier was not more fortunate in the execution of his commiſſion to the reſt of thoſe ſtates, on each of whom he had demands of the ſame nature, and received anſwers from them all nearly to the ſame purpoſe. We do not find that the Porte has taken any meaſures in conſequence of this refuſal, either to enforce the demand, or to reſent the contempt ſhewn to its authority; nor is it probable that the preſent ſtate of its marine will admit of ſuch an attempt.

In a government conſtituted like this it is not eaſy to ſay what effects, cauſes, even in appearance the moſt trifling, may produce. Many ſymptoms of weakneſs manifeſt themſelves in this great empire. A little prince of Georgia has been capable of giving it a conſiderable alarm. The piratical ſtates of Barbary do not think it worth while, as we have ſeen, to purchaſe its protection. An inſurrection of peaſants in a frontier province, which would in ſome countries be little more than an object of police, may have there ſerious conſequences on the ſtate.

An inſurrection of this kind has happened this year in the province of Montenero, which is tributary to the Grand Seignior, but which borders upon the Venetain Dalmatia. The country is rough, mountainous, and in a great meaſure inacceſſible; the inhabitants partake of the nature of the ſoil and ſituation, and are rude, ferocious, and warlike. Theſe people are of the Greek religion; and though they have at different times paid tribute, both to the Turks and Venetians, yet, from their ſituation and other circumſtances, they have eſcaped that total ſtate of ſubjection and ſervitude, to which the neighbouring poſſeſſors of a happier ſoil, and more acceſſible country, were ſubject.

A foreigner, who exerciſed the profeſſion of a phyſician, and went by the name of Stefano, has for ſome time reſided amongſt theſe people.

people. This adventurer, who is deſcribed to be a man of fine figure and great addreſs, taking advantage of their ignorance, and of a violent attachment which, from religion and ſome former benefits, they have to the Muſcovite name and nation, has publicly declared himſelf to be the Czar Peter the Third; and pretends that the report of his death was deſignedly ſpread at the time by his friends, to favour his eſcape, which he happily effected.

Under the favour of this name, and by the aſſiſtance of the Caloyers (Greek monks) who have warmly ſeconded his pretences, and who have a great influence over the inhabitants, he has got himſelf received and acknowledged as the Czar, not only by the people, but by the biſhop and all the other orders; and is ſaid to be already at the head of ſome thouſand ſoldiers.

This adventurer is ſaid, though probably without foundation, as it is uſual to magnify ſuch matters, to have money in great plenty, and to diſtribute it among his ſoldiers with the utmoſt profuſion. The province contains, it is ſaid, 30,000 men able to bear arms. This affair not only giving ſome alarm to the Porte, but alſo to the ſtate of Venice, their troops in Dalmatia have been ordered to aſſemble upon the frontiers, under the command of a general. After all, it is probable that this inſurrection will not be attended with any other conſequences, than its being a freſh inſtance of the eaſe with which a daring impoſtor may for a ſhort time delude an ignorant people, and of the almoſt certain deſtruction to the undertaker, which finally concludes the attempt. This is not a ſuitable period of time for the revival of counterfeit Demetrius's; nor could they now ſet capital cities in flames, lay nations waſte, and wade through torrents of blood as heretofore.

CHAP. III.

State of affairs in Poland. Original cauſes of the late diſputes. Ancient ſtate of that country. Converſion to the Chriſtian religion. Acceſſion of the great dutchy of Lithuania and other provinces of the kingdom of Poland. Ancient ſtate of the conſtitution, of religion, &c. Remarkable law paſſed by Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in favour of Chriſtians of all denominations. Final union of the kingdom of Poland and the great dutchy of Lithuania. The kingdom modelled into a republic, upon the death of Sigiſmund Auguſtus. The firſt diet of the republic. A perpetual peace agreed upon between the Diſſidents. The original meaning of that term.

THOUGH we gave a ſhort ſketch, in our laſt volume, of the cauſes of diſpute that ſubſiſted between the Roman Catholic and Diſſident parties in the kingdom of Poland, yet, as theſe diſputes have become every day ſince more intereſting, both in reſpect of the conſequences to the parties principally concerned, and of

of the high powers who are mediators on the occaſion, we imagine a clear but conciſe account of the nature and origin of them will not be unacceptable to many of our readers.

Poland, properly ſo called, was originally circumſcribed within very narrow bounds; the inhabitants, between the 9th and 10th centuries, were converted to the Chriſtian religion, as it was then profeſſed by the church of Rome. About the ſame time a converſion was begun in many of the neighbouring provinces, which were then independent ſtates, and who at different æras embraced the Chriſtian religion according to the Greek mode of worſhip. In proceſs of time many of theſe neighbouring ſtates, by conqueſt, by right of ſucceſſion, by marriage, or by compact, became united to the kingdom of Poland; upon all which acceſſions the new provinces were upon an exact equality with the old in every reſpect, and each obſerved their own particular modes of worſhip.

The greateſt and moſt remarkable of theſe acceſſions was that which took place upon the marriage of Jagellon, great duke of Lithuania, to the daughter and heireſs of Lewis king of Poland. By this marriage the great dutchy of Lithuania, together with the provinces of White Ruſſia, Podlachia, Volhinia, Podolia, and ſoon afterwards Red Ruſſia, became annexed to the kingdom of Poland; with this diſtinction, that the union between the kingdom and the great dutchy depended only upon the continuance of the Jagellonic line; that family being the natural ſovereigns of Lithuania. The inhabitants of all theſe provinces were of the Greek religion, as well as thoſe of Moldavia, Wallachia, and the Ukraine, which were added to the kingdom by the ſucceſſors of Jagellon; ſo that by theſe great acceſſions the members of the Greek church became at that time vaſtly ſuperior, both in numbers and power, to thoſe of the Roman Catholic perſuaſion. It ſeemed a felicity peculiar to Poland, that this difference of opinion in religious matters, between the members of the ſame nation, had produced none of thoſe ill conſequences, thoſe animoſities and diſputes, which other countries had ſo fatally experienced from the ſame cauſes.

Anno 1386.

It is to be obſerved that the conſtitution of Poland was originally very different from what it is at preſent. While her kings ſucceeded to the kingdom by hereditary right, ſhe had no ſhare of that boaſted liberty, which ſhe has aſpired to ſince; by the extinction of the Jagellonic line, in the perſon of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, ſhe has aſſumed the form of a republic, and made the crown entirely elective. Under the kings of the Jagellonic, as well as the more ancient races, the inferior nobility had no power; the prerogatives of royalty were almoſt the only legiſlative power, and formed the code of laws. To give an exact idea how much the liberty of the nobility was limited, it is ſufficient to remark, that the ſecurity of their perſons was not allowed them, but by a privilege from Jagellon, by which he promiſed that no perſon ſhould be impriſoned,

Anno 1572.

till

till he had been convicted of ſome crime by a court of judicature.

Upon occaſion of the diſturbances which were cauſed by the Huſſites, in Germany and Bohemia, Uladiſlaus Jagellon, who was brother-in-law to the Anno emperor Sigiſmund, cauſed 1424. ſome ſanguinary laws to be paſſed in Poland, to prevent the introduction of theſe doctrines, conſidered as hereſies, into his dominions. At this period, and for many years after, the epiſcopal courts had great powers, which proved very uneaſy to the Poliſh nobility, and kept them in ſome reſpects in a kind of ſervitude; as excommunications diveſted them of the power of acting in the diets and dietines. This grievance was at length removed, with great joy to the nation, though with no ſmall difficulty, by that great prince Sigiſmund Auguſtus.

The reformation began very early to make a great progreſs in Poland, inſomuch that the majority of the ſenators and nobility became members, either of the Lutheran or Reformed communions. We are to obſerve, that the word *Reformed*, in the writings upon this ſubject, always ſignifies the Calviniſts, in contradiſtinction to thoſe of the Lutheran profeſſion. To prevent all the miſchiefs and dangers that might ariſe among the citizens on the ſcore of religion, Sigiſmund Auguſtus paſſed a law at the diet of Vilna, on the 16th of June, 1563, which law is ſtill preſerved among the archives of the ſupreme tribunal of the grand dutchy of Lithuania; whereby it is declared, that all thoſe of the equeſtrian and noble orders, whether of Lithuanian or Ruſſian extraction, in every part of his dominions, even though their anceſtors had not gained the rights of nobility in the kingdom of Poland, ſhall, provided that they *profeſs the Chriſtian religion*, be entitled to, and enjoy, all the rights, privileges, and liberties, to which they are naturally intitled by their rank and nobility. Likewiſe that they are to be admitted to the honours and dignities of the ſenate and crown, and to all noble truſts; that they ſhall be promoted, each according to his merit and dignity, to all dignities and conſiderable truſts; and no one ſhall be excluded from them for the ſake of religion, provided *he be a Chriſtian*.

The ſame prince, five years afterwards, at the diet of Grodno, in 1568, granted letters of confirmation on the ſame ſubject, wherein the ſame articles are recited word for word; and to prevent the conſtruction in their own favour, which ſome prevailing denomination of Chriſtians, in prejudice to the reſt, might put upon the words—provided *he be a Chriſtian*—he made uſe in the letters of confirmation of the following memorable ones —*of whatever Chriſtian communion or confeſſion ſoever he be.*

It is to be remarked with attention, as an obſervation upon which much of the knowledge of the ſubject depends, that theſe conceſſions and declarations are ſtated to have been made during the great tranſaction of an union between the kingdom of Poland and the great dutchy of Lithuania. This was the greateſt and moſt conſequential event, with reſpect to the two nations, that ever happened, and was happily accompliſhed by this prince; ſo

that

that these concessions are with justice to be regarded not only as laws, but as parts of the great fundamental compact, upon which the union of the two nations depended. That they were then regarded as such, is evident from their being included among the other general and particular privileges, which were granted during that transaction, and afterwards received an equal confirmation at the diet of union, held at Lublin under the same prince in the year 1569, by which the grand dutchy of Lithuania was for ever united to the crown of Poland.

Upon the death of Sigismund Augustus, the Polish constitution was entirely changed, and the nation assumed the form of a republic. His grandfather, Cassimir the Third, was the first who convened the nobility, in order to oblige them to accept the new impositions. Sigismund and his father used the same method; but after his death the whole legislative authority fell into the hands of the nobility.

At this period it is asserted, that the Roman Catholics in the kingdom did not bear a proportion in number to the Greeks and Reformed, of more than one to seven. The Grand Marshal Firley, who convened the first diet of the republic, that diet which formed its present model, and made the crown elective, was a Protestant. A perpetual peace betwixt the Greeks, the Roman Catholics, and the Protestants, was therein established, as a fundamental law of the republic. The wars in Germany under Charles the Fifth, and in France under Catharine de Medicis, made them sensible of the necessity they were under of tolerating each other. The Catholics are said to have been by far the weakest, and thought themselves happy in the concession made to them, that the ecclesiastical property and revenues of Catholics should not be given to any but the members of their own communion, in the same manner as those appertaining to Greeks were to be bestowed on Greeks only. They promised to each other mutual defence and affection, and that a difference in religion should never prove the cause of civil dissension, unanimously resolving to make an example of that person, who under such a pretext should excite disturbance.

As this law has been repeated in all the public acts, constitutions, and pacta conventa, from that time to the present, it cannot but be allowed to be a fundamental one; nor can any other law be produced, whose sanction has been more solemnly, more constantly, and more frequently repeated. However, when the Roman Catholics, after the death of Sigismund the Third, had gained an evident superiority, though they did not think proper openly to controvert it, yet they shewed a disposition, when opportunity was favourable, to infringe it, by placing under their signatures, *salvis juribus ecclesiæ Romanæ Catholicæ*, saving the rights of the Roman Catholic church; whereupon the Dissidents, by way of reprisal, wrote under their signatures, *salva pace inter Dissidentes*, saving the peace amongst the Dissidents.

It appears from the infancy of the republic, that the term *Dissidents* equally comprehended the Greeks, Catholics, Reformed, and Luthe-

Lutherans. The words of that famous conſtitution which we have juſt mentioned, and which was paſſed by the diet which formed the republic in the year 1573, are, *Nos qui ſumus Diſſidentes in religione, i. e.* We who differ in religious matters. In the ſame conſtitution it is declared, that they will acknowledge no man for king or maſter "that ſhall not confirm by oath all the rights, privileges, and liberties, which they now enjoy, and which are to be laid before him after his election. Particularly, he ſhall be bound to ſwear, that he will maintain the peace among the Diſſidents in points of religion." In the conſtitutions of the ſame diet are the following remarkable ſtipulations: "We all engage, in our own names, and in the names of our ſucceſſors for ever, by the obligations of our oath, of our faith, of our honour, and of our conſciences, to preſerve peace among us who are *Diſſidents in religion*; to ſhed no blood, nor to inflict on any one the penalties of confiſcation of goods, defamation, impriſonment, or exile, on account of the difference of our faith, and rites in our churches. More than that, if any one ſhould undertake, for the above reaſon, to ſhed the blood of his fellow-citizens, we ſhould be all obliged to oppoſe him, even though he ſhould ſhelter himſelf under the pretext of a decree, or any other judicial proceeding."

It would not be eaſy to produce inſtances of equal moderation, in matters of religion, amongſt a people who differed ſo widely in their opinions on that head, as theſe we have ſhewn; eſpecially if it be conſidered that theſe conſtitutions were paſſed by a fierce and warlike nobility, each of whom was not only a member of the general ſovereignty, which they had juſt taken into their own hands; but alſo looked upon himſelf, in his own particular right, as in ſome degree a ſovereign, as far as his eſtate and power extended. We ſhall pay the greater regard to the memory of thoſe illuſtrious Poles, if we reflect that the age they lived in was far from being a temperate one, and that moderation was but little cultivated in the moſt civilized and beſt regulated governments in Europe: at the ſame time it cannot be ſufficiently lamented, that their poſterity ſhould ſo fatally loſe ſight of the politic, humane, and noble precedent, that was ſet them by their fathers.

Thoſe who have not conſidered that perverſe diſpoſition, by which almoſt every denomination of mankind would endeavour to plunder, enſlave, and perſecute every other part of their own ſpecies; and who have not obſerved that words can always be found, when attended with power, to explain away the moſt explicit ſenſe, and the moſt indubitable rights; may well be ſurpriſed how a law, ſo ſolemnly paſſed, and ſo uſeful to the whole community, could be rendered fruitleſs. A law ſanctified by the moſt ſolemn acts, which the framers bound themſelves and their poſterity, by the moſt ſacred oaths, to preſerve inviolate to all futurity, which formed a principal part of the conſtitution of the ſtate, and which every king at his acceſſion was ſworn to obſerve. Yet this law, without any material change, much leſs a ſubverſion of the

the conſtitution of the country, has been manifeſtly broken through, while three of the religions, which formed the original compact, have been ſpoiled of their rights, liberties, and immunities, by the fourth; and all this outrage and wrong committed under colour and ſanction of the very laws they were tearing to pieces at the inſtant.

CHAP. IV.

The cauſes aſſigned for the great ſuperiority which the Roman Catholics in Poland have acquired over the Greeks and Proteſtants. Account of Sigiſmund the Third. Treaty of Oliva. Edict againſt the Arians. Conſtitution of 1717. *Oppreſſion of the Diſſidents in conſequence of it. Conſtitution of* 1736. *Confederacies formed by the Diſſident nobles. Declaration of the Empreſs of Ruſſia in their favour. Of the King of Pruſſia, &c. Malcontents. The diet meets; ſome of the members arreſted by the Ruſſians. A commiſſion appointed finally to ſettle the affairs of the Diſſidents.*

IT muſt appear ſurpriſing that the Roman Catholics, who are repreſented as having formed ſo ſmall a part of the whole, at the time of eſtabliſhing the republic, and who, from their weakneſs and inability of defending themſelves, ſeemed the moſt liable to oppreſſion, ſhould, notwithſtanding, become the moſt numerous and powerful, and be able to tyrannize over the reſt of their brethren. It is not improbable that this part of the picture has been a little overcharged by the writer from whom we derive our materials. Among the many cauſes by which this perſuaſion is ſaid to have obtained the aſcendency, and by degrees the excluſive poſſeſſion of government, the following ſeem to be the principal.

Upon the death of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and the foundation of the republic, Szafraniec, a Proteſtant, was propoſed for King, and his acceſſion wiſhed by great numbers; but the Diſſidents in general, from a grateful attachment to the Jagallonic family, preferred the intereſt of the Princeſs Anne, ſiſter to the late king, and made it a rule, that whatever prince was elected ſhould marry her. This princeſs, who had been all her life in the hands of the Romiſh clergy, and was violently attached to their principles, obliged Stephen Barthori, who married her, to change his religion; and, what was attended with much worſe conſequences, put her nephew Sigiſmund, who ſhe afterwards had intereſt enough to get elected king upon the death of her huſband, into the hands of the Jeſuits for his education.

During the long inglorious reign of her nephew, Sigiſmund the Third, which laſted for near half a century, all the material intereſts of the nation were entirely neglected, and went accordingly to ruin. The bigotted monarch's whole time was applied to the bringing over of converts, in which he neither regarded the means uſed nor the ſincerity of thoſe converted; and carried on every degree of perſecution and oppreſſion againſt thoſe, who had

honeſty and reſolution enough, neither to be debauched by rewards, nor compelled by threats.

It is ſaid of this weak prince, that the converſion of a Diſſident, the demolition of one of their churches, or the founding of a new college of Jeſuits, were more prized by him, than the gaining of a victory, or the preſervation of a province.

That the whole courſe of his adminiſtration was ſo odious, that even the Catholics, and the great Zamoiſky, his protector, who had placed him on the throne, were highly incenſed at his conduct, and reproached him bitterly in public for it. That by a conſtant perſeverance in this conduct, his whole reign was a continued ſeries of loſs and diſgrace; that by it he loſt the kingdom of Sweden, as well as the noble provinces of Livonia, Wallachia, and Moldavia. That the misfortunes incurred by it, were not confined to his reign, but are entailed upon the lateſt poſterity; for the great revolt of the Coſſacks, which gave ſo irretrievable a ſhock to the republic, was a conſequence of it, and concerted during his life. And matters were carried to ſuch a pitch at home, that a great part of the nation were at one time upon the point of dethroning him.

People who take a tranſient and diſtant view of the affairs of Poland, and who, from its name and form of a republic, look upon their kings to be nearly nominal, and their power circumſcribed within very narrow limits, will be ſurprized how ſo weak and bigotted a prince could have the power of doing ſo much harm. But the Kings of Poland have ſtill, in ſome reſpects, very great powers, one of the principal of which, beſides the dependance that is naturally created by the diſpoſal of governments, and all offices and places of truſt or emolument, is, that theſe very offices are what conſtitute the ſenate, none of the members of which hold by any hereditary right; ſo that this body bears a more juſt reſemblance to a king's private council and adminiſtration, than to an Engliſh houſe of lords, to which the Poliſh writers ſometimes compare it. It ſhould alſo be remembered, that in the days of Sigiſmund the Third, the Poliſh nation were only newly emancipated from the government of a long line of hereditary kings, from whom he was deſcended on the mother's ſide, and under many of whom they had arrived at the higheſt degree of ſplendor and glory. The kingdom of Sweden, which he poſſeſſed for a part of his reign, muſt have done more than contribute to dazzle the eyes of the people; and if we take all theſe cauſes together, we cannot avoid ſuppoſing that he had very ſuperior degrees of power and influence to what have been poſſeſſed by later monarchs.

It is no wonder then, that ſuch a prince, during the courſe of ſo long a reign, with emoluments, honours, and preferments, to beſtow in one hand, and perſecution to threaten in the other, ſhould have made an infinite number of proſelytes. The event was anſwerable to what might have been expected: biſhops abandoned their flocks; the prieſts and people were compelled to follow them; every gentleman who embraced the Catholic faith,

immediately

immediately demoliſhed all the churches of the Diſſidents that were built upon his eſtates; the tradeſmen that were ſettled there diſperſed themſelves to other parts, and the peaſants were converted without difficulty. If the prieſt, or any of the vaſſals, were firſt converted, they were ſupported againſt the lord, who was compelled at length, by a variety of chicanery and vexation, either to become a convert, or to diſpoſe of his eſtate. In this manner the Diſſidents loſt, during the reign of Sigiſmund, upwards of an hundred churches; and the Catholics increaſed to that degree, that from five only, who were members of the ſenate in the beginning of it, at his death they amounted to three parts of the whole aſſembly.

Though the Diſſidents were not uniformly oppreſſed during the ſucceeding reigns; yet they met with ſuch diſcouragements, as daily decreaſed their numbers; and means were at length found to keep them entirely out of the ſenate. By the treaty of Oliva, notwithſtanding the general intention which then prevailed to deprive the Swedes of every pretence for ever again re-entering Poland; yet it is ſtipulated by the ſecond article, "That all the ſubjects of the kingdom of Poland, of what condition or religion ſoever, were to enjoy for the future all the rights and privileges, as well temporal as ſpiritual, which they had enjoyed before the war." This is the celebrated treaty, which we have formerly taken notice of, and which is ſo often quoted upon the preſent diſputes; and it is to this treaty that the great mediating powers became guarantees.

Anno 1660.

A ſevere law was paſſed in the following year, and in the ſame reign of John Caſimir, againſt the Arians, who were charged with blaſphemy, and declared heretics; it was alſo ordained, that all proſecutions againſt them, as being the cauſe of God, ſhould be decided in the ſeveral courts, before all other cauſes. It was at the ſame time declared, that this law had not the leaſt reference to the Diſſidents, who were aſſured in the moſt ſolemn manner, in the body of the law itſelf, that they ſhould for the time to come be continued in the enjoyment of all their rights, employments, and honours, as before. Notwithſtanding theſe expreſs ſtipulations, this law has ſince proved a ſevere ſcourge to the Diſſidents, to whom the clergy have applied it in all their ſuits, eſpecially during the reigns of the two Saxon kings, who, as new Catholics, affected to be very zealous to that religion, and violently attached to the clergy of it. To this very time, the trials of the Diſſidents are determined ex Regiſtro Arianiſmi; and as a cauſe of this kind is branded with the epithet of "abominable;" ſo no one perſon will venture to eſpouſe the part of a perſon accuſed under this title.

Though the Diſſidents met with various and numberleſs oppreſſions and injuries, during the courſe of the laſt century; yet they were ſtill regarded only as acts of ſudden violence or outrage, and acknowledged to be contrary

to the laws, which were open to applications for redreſs, when the temper of the times was tranquil enough to allow of it. But in the preſent century, an advantage has been taken, during the confuſion which attended the troubles in which the republic has been ſo deeply involved, to get laws paſſed which ſtruck directly at all the rights of the Diſſidents, and almoſt at their very exiſtence; by which it was intended, in proceſs of time, to bring the ſecular power to the aid of the eccleſiaſtic, and from that means to proſecute them, under an appearance of juſtice.

The firſt attempt of this nature was in the diet that ſucceeded the troubles in the year 1717; and which met to ratify the treaty of peace then concluded between Peter the Great, Auguſtus the Second, and the republic. At this diet, through the cunning of Sieniawſky, Biſhop of Culm, an article was inſerted in the treaty, as explanatory of an ambiguous article of a conſtitution, which had paſſed in the year 1632; by which explanation it was falſely pre-ſuppoſed, that the Diſſidents were forbidden by the ſaid article to build any churches after that period. This was managed ſo artfully, that the very deputies of the princes who ſigned the treaty, and Auguſtus himſelf, imagined that it only regarded the abuſes introduced by the Swedes during the war, who had exerciſed public worſhip in ſome of the royal cities, where the Diſſidents had no churches originally.

For the better underſtanding of this paſſage, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that frequent tumults having happened, and much blood having been ſpilt, by the riſing of the populace in the great cities to demoliſh the Diſſidents churches; the latter, for the ſake of peace, and to prevent bloodſhed, conſented to a conſtitution, which was paſſed in the year 1632, by which they were bound to build no new churches in any of the royal cities; but by this new explanation, which now had the force of a law, and the effects of which ſoon began to appear, all churches which had been built in any part of the kingdom ſince that period, were ordered to be pulled down, and divine ſervice was only allowed in thoſe that were anterior to it. The nobles who kept miniſters in their houſes, and the miniſters themſelves, were in conſequence of this inference puniſhed, by fines, impriſonments, and baniſhment; and the ſenſe of the puniſhments and indignities was increaſed, from their being inflicted by inferior courts compoſed chiefly of clergymen. This method of procedure was the more extraordinary and unjuſt, as it was a direct violation of the expreſs laws of the kingdom, by which it had been always decreed, that eccleſiaſtical differences, in which the Diſſidents were concerned, could only be brought before the diet, and were neither to be tried or judged by any other tribunal.

Though the true deſign of this proceeding was not avowed; yet ſuch were the meaſures taken, and ſo violent were the party who ſupported it, that, at the time the treaty was read, no perſon durſt give

give his vote, or ſpeak one word againſt it; even the Prince Primate was not allowed to ſpeak, who thereupon, with many other Roman Catholics, quitted the aſſembly, which has ever ſince, from that cauſe, been ſtigmatized by the name of the Mute Diet. The treaty was read to the aſſembly, and they all ſtanding; and though an affair of ſo much conſequence in other reſpects to the nation, yet to carry the favourite point, it was, without debate or deliberation, hurried through almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Many of the Diſſident deputies, however, proteſted againſt it, and immediately quitted the diet. The Primate alſo, and many Roman Catholics, refuſed to aſſent to it; and as by the conſtitution of Poland no concluſion can be valid that is not unanimouſly agreed to by the whole diet, ſo nothing but the moſt injurious and unjuſt force could paſs this explanatory article as a law.

Peter the Great wrote a very ſerious letter, in which he expreſſed great diſpleaſure at the oppreſſions that enſued in conſequence of this article. Auguſtus alſo publiſhed an edict to maintain the Diſſidents in poſſeſſion of their former liberties; and a declaration, that the obnoxious article ſhould not be prejudicial to them. Neither the letter nor the edict were of any uſe to the Diſſidents. Peter, who was their beſt friend, was at the preſent taken up with other affairs; and when he was going to afford them effectual redreſs, by ſending an army into Poland, he unfortunately for them died. Auguſtus had not power to ſerve them, nor had he inclination to diſoblige the prevailing party.

The oppreſſions of the Diſſidents grew every day greater. To ſuch a degree did the Biſhop of Wilna inflame the minds of the people againſt them, that they were by force drove out of the church, in which they were to have taken the oaths to qualify themſelves for counſellors of the tribunals of Lithuania, to which they had been legally choſen, and from which they were excluded under pretence of the explanatory article, though offices were not at all mentioned by it. In every other reſpect matters were carried againſt them to the moſt extravagant pitch, under the ſame ſpecious pretext; inſomuch that endeavours were uſed to prevent even their repairing their old churches, which were not in any degree included in it.

In this ſituation did their affairs continue till the election of Auguſtus the IIId. and the diet which ſucceeded to the troubles upon that occaſion in 1736. From this diet the Diſſidents received a deeper wound than they had ever before experienced; for the conſtitution of 1717 was not only confirmed in its fulleſt extent, but they were alſo excluded from all public offices; and, to ſhut them out from every hope of relief, it was decreed, that ſhould they implore the interceſſion of any foreign power, they were declared traitors to their country, notwithſtanding thoſe were the very powers that were the guarantees of the treaty of Oliva. The Proteſtant country deputies of Pruſſia were preſent at this diet, and proteſted againſt the proceedings; but they were refuſed to be heard,

neither was their proteſt admitted in any of the courts of judicature; which was a notorious and public breach of the laws, as well as a violence to the Diſſidents.

From this period, till of late, there were no permanent diets in Poland, and the affairs of the Diſſidents fell every day into greater confuſion. At the diet of 1764, both the two former fatal conſtitutions were confirmed; and it was enacted, that, for the future, accuſations might be brought againſt the infractors of thoſe laws, before any of the courts of juſtice, without diſtinction.

Our readers have already ſeen, in the laſt volume, the proceedings in the diet of that year; the applications that were made in favour of the Diſſidents by the mediating powers; and the declaration made by the diet at its breaking up, in anſwer to them. We then foreſaw that the concluſions of the diet were as little likely to give ſatisfaction to the powers who had intereſted themſelves upon the occaſion, as they were to redreſs the grievances of the ſufferers. The promiſe made by the declaration, that the Diſſidents ſhould be ſupported in their privileges according to the conſtitutions of 1717, 1736, and 1764, and that the biſhops ſhould conſider their religious griefs, was in fact an aſſurance, that the three violent and deſtructive laws, which at once ſtruck at their rights, liberties, and ſafety, ſhould be enforced to the utmoſt againſt them, and that their grievances ſhould, for the future, be referred to their moſt implacable enemies.

As this evaſive, pitiful declaration, unworthy the repreſentatives of a great nation, could not ſucceed with the powers for whom it was intended; ſo the Empreſs of Ruſſia, as one of the neareſt and the moſt immediately concerned, was the firſt who ſhewed her diſapprobation of it. In the mean time the Diſſidents, being ſenſible that mildneſs and ſubmiſſion would only increaſe their dangers and hardſhips, under the preſent prevailing party, who ſought their deſtruction to increaſe their own ſtrength, and perhaps with a view to unhinge every part of the commonwealth, in this ſituation began to form confederacies in the different parts of the kingdom, for their mutual preſervation and defence. Though their once numerous and boaſted nobility were at preſent reduced to little more than two hundred families, excluſive of thoſe in the dutchy of Courland; yet they were animated to a bold attempt, by a ſenſe of the wrongs they had ſo long endured, the immediate injuries which they all experienced, and the total deſtruction which they believed was preparing for them.

The firſt act of confederacy was entered into at Sluck, by the nobles and citizens of the Greek communion, and the two evangelical confeſſions in the great dutchy of Lithuania. This act of confederacy was ſigned by a number of the nobility, who appointed Major General Grabowſki to be their marſhal, and a council to aſſiſt him. About the ſame time, a confederacy was entered into at Thorn, by the nobility of the kingdom of Poland, who appointed Lieutenant Gene-

March 10th, 1767.

March 20th.

General Goltze to be marſhal of the confederacy, with a council conſiſting of twenty-four members to aſſiſt him. This act of confederacy was ſigned by three hundred and eight members, beſides the marſhal. Many of the Catholics, urged by various diſcontents, muſt have joined in this confederacy, elſe it is hardly conceivable, when the numbers of Diſſident nobility were reduced to that lowneſs, which we have mentioned above, on the ſame authority with the reſt of the account, ſuch large bodies could have been formed. In ſome time after, the three great cities of Thorn, Elbing, and Dantzick, publiſhed at Thorn an act of acceſſion to this confederacy.

In the mean time the Empreſs of Ruſſia ſent a ſtrong augmentation to her forces that were already in Poland, and publiſhed a declaration, wherein, beſides reiterating the former remonſtrances and complaints which ſhe had ineffectually made, ſhe animadverts ſeverely upon the conduct of the late diet; avows her approbation of the general confederacies; declares her intention to ſupport them with her utmoſt power; that ſhe ſhall look upon any perſon or perſons that offer them an injury as her enemies; and that her troops have orders to act accordingly, and to procure a full reparation from thoſe who ſhould venture to attack them, either in their perſons or effects.

The Diſſidents preſerved a temper and moderation in their acts of confederacy, their manifeſtoes, and all their other writings upon this occaſion. They modeſtly recapitulate their ſufferings; they make no remarks, nor uſe any pointed invectives againſt their perſecutors; they talk with great reverence of the Roman Catholic religion; profeſs the greateſt regard, love, and obedience to the king and the republic; and declare, that nothing but inevitable neceſſity, the ſenſe of impending danger, which threatened them and their families with certain, and almoſt immediate deſtruction, together with repeated evidences that the laws were no longer a protection, and were broke through in every inſtance, could have urged them to enter into their preſent union, though formed only for their own defence. In a word, the whole tenor of theſe writings ſhewed that they wanted nothing but to ſit down in peace and ſecurity; and every deſire of diſſenſion ſeemed very remote from their preſent diſpoſition.

The Pruſſian miniſter delivered, at this time, a very ſtrong declaration from his maſter to the king and the republic, wherein he commented ſeverely upon the declaration made by the diet to the foreign miniſters, and expreſſed great diſſatisfaction at the contradiction, duplicity, and injuſtice to the Diſſidents, which were couched in the very terms of it. He complained of the little attention that was paid to his friendly repreſentations upon the ſubject, declared his approbation of the confederacy, and his intention to coincide with the Empreſs of Ruſſia in protecting of it, and in procuring juſtice for the Diſſidents. The confederacy was farther encouraged by the declarations of England, Sweden, and Denmark, which were all in its favour. However, no power but

Ruſſia took a very active part in this buſineſs.

The example the Diſſidents had given of entering into a confederacy, was ſoon followed by the generality of the Roman Catholic nobility throughout the kingdom; ſo that there were twenty-four confederacies formed in the great dutchy of Lithuania only. As theſe confederacies were formed in oppoſition to ſome political innovations, they were diſtinguiſhed from the Diſſidents by the appellation of Malcontents. Every one of the confederacies had a clauſe inſerted in their articles, whereby they acknowledged the juſtice of the claims made by the Diſſidents; and declared their reſolution to have them reinſtated in their rights and immunities.

In the midſt of all theſe commotions, the ſtricteſt order was preſerved throughout the kingdom, and we ſcarce hear an inſtance of a ſingle outrage committed in any part of it. While affairs were in this ſituation, Prince Charles de Radzivil, remarkable for being obliged to quit his native country, and having his eſtates laid under ſequeſtration, for the part he acted in oppoſition to the election of the preſent king, arrived in Poland; he was received with the greateſt joy by the people, and was immediately declared, with great powers, marſhal of the general confederacy of Malcontents. This prince aſſumed all the ſtate and dignity of a ſovereign; he publiſhed an univerſalia, in which he declares that all thoſe who do not adhere to the general confederacy ſhall be treated as enemies to their country. Among other extraordinary acts, he preſcribed a new oath of fidelity to the king and to the general confederacy: in this oath, along with the ſecurity of the Roman Catholic religion, the rights of the Diſſidents were included; and the officers of the civil and military departments were obliged to take it, or loſe their places. Some of the great officers of ſtate are ſaid to have reſigned their places, rather than take this oath: the new Prince Primate took it voluntarily; ſome of the other biſhops alſo took it.

The king ſeems to have been a ſilent ſpectator of all theſe tranſactions; which, it cannot be imagined, afforded him any degree of pleaſure. He gave an audience to Prince Radzivil, which it was obſerved continued only for a few minutes: upon the whole, he ſhewed a coolneſs and command of temper, which has perhaps been ſeldom ſeen in ſuch circumſtances, but which was very convenient, where reſiſtance was impoſſible. It ſhould be obſerved, that all the different confederacies, whether Malcontents or Diſſidents, had taken, at their firſt formation, an oath of the ſtricteſt fidelity to the king; and that it was alſo the firſt part of the oath that was preſcribed by Prince Radzivil.

All parties ſeemed to agree, that nothing could reſtore the peace of the republic, but the ſummoning of an extraordinary diet: this meaſure was adopted, and the king iſſued orders accordingly. The dietines were in many places very tumultuous, and ſome miſchief was done; ſome of the nobility cried out, that they made a part of a free people, and exclaimed againſt a foreign military force,

force, and the pretences of an assistance that ruled with the greatest degree of despotism. In some places the Russian officers, who attended at all the dietines, were insulted; however their opposition shewed rather their discontent than their power. It was evident that the diet was only a form; and that the empress of Russia was the only governing power in Poland. The most refractory of these nobles were sufficiently punished, the Russian troops being sent to live at free quarter upon their estates. In the mean time, the tribunal of the general confederacy was opened with great solemnity, in the palace of Prince Radzivil; where the re-union of the confederacy of the Dissidents, and of the general confederacy of the Malcontents, was declared.

Sept. 25th.

At length the so much wished and hoped for event took place; and the diet met at Warsaw. The king began, by addressing the assembly with a most pathetic speech, in which he strongly recommended concord to the members. This was followed by a speech from the Bishop of Cracow, much to the same purpose as that he had made last year. He inveighed warmly against the pretensions of the Dissidents, and reminded the king in the strongest terms of the oath he had taken to support the Catholic faith; and concluded by observing, that it was not sufficient for his majesty to bear the title of an orthodox prince, but that he should be so in reality. The diet, without proceeding to the election of a marshal, agreed, that prince Radzivil should perform the functions of that office.

Oct. 5th.

Having met again on the next day, the affair of the Dissidents was carried on with great warmth. This induced Prince Radzivil to adjourn the diet to the 12th, in hopes that some of the present heat would wear off, and that a better method of treating the affair might be concerted in the interval. During this time every expedient was used to qualify the heat of the opposite party, and to bring them into a disposition favourable to a happy accommodation. A plan was also concerted, which it was thought would be the most effectual one to answer the desired purposes; which was, that the diet should appoint a certain number of commissioners, out of the three orders of the state, to whom it should grant full powers to settle with the Russian ambassador, and finally to conclude upon all matters relative to the Dissidents.

All the attempts to introduce good temper, or even moderation, proved fruitless; and this third meeting of the diet proved more turbulent and tumultuous than the others. The bishops of Cracovia, Kiovia, and some other prelates, together with several of the magnates, spoke with more vehemence than ever, against all the pretensions of the Dissidents, and declared they never would consent to the establishment of a commission with full powers to enter into conferences with the Russian ambassador upon that subject. Several of the deputies answered them with great warmth; and the animosity among them rose to such a degree, that the marshal was obliged to prorogue the meeting to the 16th.

The

The Ruſſian troops, who had for ſome months nearly ſurrounded as well as interſected the kingdom of Poland, had now cloſely inveſted the city of Warſaw, and were in poſſeſſion, and kept ſtrict guards upon all the avenues leading to it. The day after this tumult in the diet, ſome detachments of their troops entered the city, and having ſeized the Biſhops of Cracow and Kiovia, together with Count Rzewuſki, the Waywode of Cracovia, and his ſon, and ſome other deputies, they carried them off priſoners. As nobody knew at firſt the deſtination of theſe grandees, nor even where they were carried to, this affair cauſed a great and general conſternation. But though it intimidated ſome of the deputies belonging to that party; yet it only ſerved to inflame others. Many people blamed the noble priſoners for the virulent and unguarded expreſſions they had made uſe of, in ſpeaking of ſome of the great powers who had intereſted themſelves in favour of the Diſſidents. On the other hand it was alledged, that every deputy at the diet ought to ſpeak his ſentiments freely, and that if he exceeds the bounds of decency, with reſpect to any foreign power, it belongs to the tribunals of the kingdom to proceed againſt him judicially for it.

In this critical ſituation, the king ſeemed to have need of the greateſt wiſdom, and of the utmoſt extent of capacity, to deviſe means to guard againſt the dangers with which the ſtate was ſurrounded; the hope of which, from the turbulence of the diet, grew every day more precarious. His majeſty is ſaid to have delivered himſelf in the following terms, in a conference he had upon this ſituation of affairs: "There is little knowledge required to govern a veſſel when the winds are favourable. A ſkilful pilot ſhould know how to withſtand the ſtorm without abandoning the helm. I have ſeveral times entertained the deſign, as I ſtill do, of abdicating the crown, the burthen of which I feel, but that my love for my country made me alter my reſolution. You ought all, gentlemen, to conſider the melancholy circumſtances which you have drawn upon us. I have conſtantly employed all my endeavours for the good of the ſtate; but few among you have aſſiſted me with your ſupport; and I find myſelf abandoned by the greater part: yet I can aſſure you, that if I had taken the courſe of abandoning you in my turn, you would now have found yourſelves in a miſerable ſituation."

The fourth meeting of the diet, notwithſtanding the abſence of the moſt turbulent members, was extremely tumultuous, and great heat and animoſity was ſhewn by the different parties. The king, the Prince Primate, and the Nuncio of Podolia, made very pathetic and conciliating ſpeeches; but it ſeemed as if nothing could calm the violent ſpirit which poſſeſſed the members. However, the diet having again met the following day, it was at laſt concluded, after long debates, to adopt Prince Radzivil's propoſal, and to appoint a commiſſion to ſettle the affairs of the Diſſidents. This commiſſion conſiſted at firſt of fourteen members, but was increaſed to about ſixty; Octob. 16th.

ſixty; their meetings were in the houſe of the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and the diet, to give them time finally to ſettle, and thoroughly to examine into the important ſubject in which they were engaged, was prolonged to the firſt of February.

To this commiſſion the republic of Poland is indebted for the proſpect of a laſting harmony between the different parts of which it is compoſed, and the Diſſidents for the reſtoration of their juſt rights and privileges, and their future ſecurity in the enjoyment of them.

The commiſſioners, after many meetings, at length ſigned their reſolutions, which were then tranſmitted to Moſcow for the approbation of the Empreſs; after which they are to be paſſed into a law, and conſidered as one of the fundamental conſtitutions of the republic. Nov. 20th.

Though theſe reſolutions are not authentically publiſhed; yet they are known to be founded upon the following baſis: That the Catholic is to be conſidered as the predominant religion in Poland; of which profeſſion the king is always to be. That the Diſſidents, both clergy and laity, with reſpect to worſhip and all other matters, are to poſſeſs equal rights, privileges, and immunities, with the Roman Catholics. And that a ſuperior tribunal, conſiſting of an equal number of members of the three religions, is to be formed; the preſident of which is to be a Roman Catholic, a Greek, or a Proteſtant, alternately; and that all diſputes whatſoever, relative to the Diſſidents, are to be judged by it.

During theſe tranſactions, ſeveral applications were ineffectually made for the enlargement of the grandees, who had been ſeized by the Ruſſians: Prince Repnin, however, ſatisfied the minds of the people, by declaring they were not in cloſe confinement, but were at large under the care of a detachment at Wilna, where they were treated with all the reſpect due to their quality. The Empreſs of Ruſſia, upon an application that was made on this ſubject, is ſaid to have made anſwer, that theſe nobles were poſſeſſed with ſo turbulent a ſpirit, that their liberty would deſtroy all the pains ſhe had taken for the peace and happineſs of the republic.

CHAP. V.

Spain. Meaſures relative to the expulſion of the Jeſuits; the cauſes that are aſſigned for that proceeding. The houſes of that ſociety in every part of Spain ſeized by the king's troops; the members arreſted, and their effects ſequeſtered. The king of Spain's ordinance againſt the ſociety. The Jeſuits tranſported to Civita Vecchia; but are not ſuffered to be landed: from thence they are carried to Corſica. The Jeſuits in Mexico, and all the other Spaniſh colonies, arreſted, and their property ſeized. Similar meaſures purſued in Naples and Sicily.

THE expulſion of the Jeſuits this year from the Spaniſh dominions, is perhaps one of the moſt remarkable incidents that has happened in the courſe of the preſent century. This event was not

not more extraordinary in its nature, than it was unexpected at the time, and unforeſeen by the ſufferers. Mankind have beheld with amazement a nation, not only the moſt violently attached to the Roman Catholic religion, but alſo to the principles, intereſts, and views of the court of Rome, ſuddenly deſtroy, and almoſt totally annihilate, a religious order, which had its birth and nurture in itſelf, and that had been long looked upon as the principal ſtrength and ſupport of the papal power.

This order, which had ſo long ruled the cabinets and guided the conſciences of kings; which had extended its power and influence into every quarter of the world; and which had great poſſeſſions, and ſtill greater connections, in the very country from which it was proſcribed; now beheld its unhappy members, fugitives, outcaſts of all mankind, refuſed admittance by every nation in Europe, even by the ſovereign pontiff, to whom they were ſo zealouſly attached; and after wandering about the ſeas, ſailing from port to port, enduring numberleſs hardſhips, and finding every port ſhut againſt them, were at laſt happy to meet an aſylum, which was procured for them with great difficulty in the barren iſland of Corſica.

Such is the uncertainty of human affairs, and ſuch the influence that time has upon opinions, that this mighty blow was ſtruck without the leaſt diſturbance; with ſcarce a murmur from the ſufferers, and ſcarcely a remonſtrance in their favour from thoſe they might have thought their friends. The time has been, when an attempt of the ſame nature might have overturned the beſt founded government in Chriſtendom.

This event ſufficiently ſhews the great latitude that a freedom of thought and enquiry has gained in countries that were hitherto the moſt wedded to particular forms and opinions. It alſo evidently ſhews, that bigotry is not the reigning vice of the preſent age; whatever complaint may with too much juſtice be made of the progreſs of infidelity.

The real motives of this extraordinary expulſion have not been declared; thoſe general ones, that have been given out, are founded only upon uncertain ſurmiſes. The king, in the ordinance which he iſſued for their baniſhment, talks only in general terms of keeping his people in due ſubordination, of tranquillity, juſtice, &c. but profeſſes other juſt, urgent, and neceſſary cauſes, which he reſerves within his own breaſt. This compendious method of condemnation, for cauſes reſerved in the judge's breaſt, and only known to him, who is at once the accuſer, judge, and avenger of crimes, which he does not ſpecify, may upon many occaſions be very uſeful to ſovereigns; but however this order may have merited the rigorous treatment which they met on this occaſion, the mode and circumſtances of the proceeding againſt them furniſh a ſtriking inſtance of the miſerable inſecurity of private property, and the continual danger which all the natural rights of mankind are in of being violated, under a deſpotic government.

Some are of opinion, that the Jeſuits had been the ſecret inſti-

gators

gators of all the late tumults that had happened in Spain; and conſequently of the baniſhment of the Marquis de Squillacci, the king's favourite miniſter. Others attribute to them ſchemes ſtill deeper laid and more dangerous, which, they ſay, the king fortunately diſcovered in time. It is poſſible that the example ſet by France and Portugal, together with the powerful influence which the former power has upon the court of Madrid, might have had its full weight upon this occaſion. The Spaniards in general are much averſe to this French influence; and it is aſſerted that the Jeſuits, probably from reſentment of the ſufferings of their brethren in France, had taken great pains to encourage and heighten this diſlike.

Many other cauſes have been aſſigned, which might have contributed to the extirpation of this ſociety. Their conduct in Paraguay, with reſpect to the kings of Spain and Portugal; the contumacy with which they not only refuſed to ſubmit to their edicts, but even oppoſed their troops in the field; might have given juſt grounds for the court of Spain to free itſelf from a body full of ambition and of power. They are alſo ſaid to have monopolized, in a great degree, the commerce in the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, to the great prejudice of the ſtate, as well as to the detriment of individuals; and they are charged with holding opinions, and publiſhing tenets in their writings, which were not only deſtructive to religion, but ſubverſive of all kingly government.

The ſecrecy with which all the meaſures leading to this event were conducted, and the ſilence with which they were put in execution, were circumſtances as remarkable as any that attended it. The Jeſuits, notwithſtanding their extenſive correſpondence and connection, and their uſual good intelligence, were ſurprized in their beds, without the leaſt time to avert the danger, or the ſmalleſt warning of the impending blow. This will appear the more extraordinary, as the king's ordinance, which was publiſhed upon the occaſion, ſhews, that theſe meaſures were the reſult of a council, held the 29th of the preceding January; and that the king's commiſſion to the count de Aranda for the execution of them, was iſſued on the 27th of February.

Between eleven and twelve at night, the Mar. 31ſt, ſix different houſes of 1767. Jeſuits in the city of Madrid, were ſurrounded by large detachments of regular troops; who, having got open the outſide doors, the bells were immediately ſecured, and a ſentry placed at the door of each cell. When every neceſſary meaſure was taken, the Jeſuits were ordered to riſe, and, being aſſembled, they were acquainted with the king's commands, and were then aſſiſted in packing up ſuch things as were requiſite for their journey. In the mean time, all the hired coaches and chaiſes in Madrid, together with ſeveral waggons, had been ſecured, and diſtributed in proper places; ſo that, without any loſs of time, they began their journey to Carthagena very early in the morning, and were eſcorted by a ſtrong and numerous guard. All this was effected without the leaſt noiſe

noiſe or diſturbance; the inhabitants of Madrid were in their beds, and knew nothing of what paſſed till they heard it to their great ſurprize in the morning, when the affair was entirely over.

On the third day after, in the morning, the Jeſuits college at Barcelona was inveſted by the civil and military power; the members were ſent off guarded for tranſportation, as thoſe at Madrid had been; and their effects were ſeized upon and ſealed up. The ſame meaſures were put in execution at the ſame hour in every part of Spain. The packets, which conveyed the orders upon this ſubject to the governors, were incloſed in letters, which gave directions, that they ſhould not be opened till a certain hour; after which no perſon, to whom any part of the orders were communicated, was to quit the governor's ſight till they were executed. In the mean time orders were ſent to the ſea-ports, to examine all perſons who ſhould attempt to take their paſſage to any part of the Spaniſh Indies, and to keep the ſtricteſt watch, that no Jeſuit, in any diſguiſe, ſhould paſs that way. Ships were alſo provided, and the priſoners were, by different embarkations, conveyed to Italy.

The king then publiſhed his pragmatic ſanction, or royal ordinance, for the expulſion of the Jeſuits. By this ordinance, the temporalities of the company, in every part of the Spaniſh dominions, are ſeized to the king's uſe. In the temporalities are included all their goods, chattels, and eſtates of every ſort, but without prejudice to the real incumbrances affecting ſuch eſtates. The prieſts belonging to the ſociety are to have ſmall life annuities. The foreign brothers, which were pretty numerous, were entirely excluded from the benefit of theſe alimentary annuities, which were confined to native Spaniards.

It was declared by this ordinance, that if any of the expelled Jeſuits ſhould quit the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, into which they were to be tranſported, or ſhould, by their actions, or writings, give the court any juſt cauſe of reſentment, ſuch perſons ſhould be immediately deprived of the penſions aſſigned them. But the ſevereſt injunction of all, and which made their hopes of a livelihood entirely precarious, was, that if the company cauſed or permitted any of its individuals to write any thing contrary to the reſpect and ſubmiſſion due to the king's reſolution, under title or pretext of apologies or juſtifications, tending to diſturb the peace of his kingdoms, or ſhould in any other manner, by their private emiſſaries, make attempts of that nature; in ſuch caſe, which was, however, ſaid to be *unexpected*, the whole penſions were to ceaſe and determine.

By the other articles, no part nor body of the company, nor any individual belonging to it, are ever to be re-admitted under any pretence, or for any cauſe whatſoever; nor is the council, or any other tribunal, ever to admit of any application upon that ſubject. On the contrary, the magiſtrates are to exert the moſt rigorous meaſures, and to puniſh, as diſturbers of the public peace, all the abettors of ſuch an attempt. All correſpondence with Jeſuits is forbidden, under the ſevereſt penalties.

Silence

Silence is ſtrictly enjoined to all the king's ſubjects upon this occaſion; and any perſon who ventures to write, declaim, or make any ſtir, for or againſt theſe meaſures, is declared guilty of high-treaſon. This law is extended to all the king's dominions, as well in the Indies, as in Europe and elſewhere.

In the mean time, the news of this event was received at Rome with the greateſt aſtoniſhment; and before it could in any degree wear off, fourteen tranſports, under convoy of three Spaniſh men of war, arrived at Civita Vecchia, with 970 Jeſuits on board. The governor refuſed to let them land till he had received inſtructions, and immediately diſpatched an expreſs to Rome. The arrival of this expreſs threw the people into a great ferment, and the pope immediately ſummoned a congregation of cardinals to conſult upon the occaſion. The reſult of this council was abſolutely to forbid the reception of the Jeſuits in the eccleſiaſtical dominions; and orders were given to the governor of Civita Vecchia, to take ſuch methods as ſhould effectually prevent their being landed.

About this time the King of Spain was ſaid to have wrote the following laconic letter to the pope, as an explanation of the motives for his procedure againſt the Jeſuits:

"Holy father,

All my tribunals having judged that the fathers Jeſuits are of no ſervice to my kingdoms, I could do no leſs than conform to their repreſentations. Of this, as a ſon of the holy church, I acquaint its ſupreme head. I recommend your holineſs to the divine keeping."

Theſe reaſons not appearing ſatisfactory, two couriers were ſent to Madrid, who, it is ſaid, made the following repreſentations: That, if the Jeſuits are guilty, they are not ſufficiently puniſhed; but too much ſo, if they are innocent. That the laws ſeem to require, that citizens ſhall not be driven from their country, till they have undergone a trial, to make evident the proofs of their crimes. That as to the reſt, tho' it is in the power of his Catholic majeſty to treat his ſubjects in ſuch a manner as may ſeem fit and convenient to him; yet he cannot oblige any other ſovereign to give them an aſylum in his dominions. That if the Catholic powers ſhould all think proper to ſuppreſs the different religious orders in the countries under their dominion, and conſign them to the diſpoſal of his holineſs, not only the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, but the whole country of Italy, would be too ſmall to contain ſuch a number of new inhabitants.

No notice was taken of theſe repreſentations. In the mean time the convoy at Civita Vecchia, after lying ſome time in the harbour, received orders to proceed to Baſtia; and the French court made uſe of its influence with the republic of Genoa, to receive the Jeſuits in the towns that remained in its hands in the iſland of Corſica. At length the embarkation from Civita Vecchia arrived at Baſtia; here they were as unfortunate

May 22d.

fortunate as before; matters were not yet brought to a concluſion between the French and Genoeſe, and they were obliged to remain on board, in the harbour. Three other embarkations took at different times the ſame rout as the firſt, to Civita Vecchia; where meeting with the ſame fate, they afterwards proceeded to Corſica, where they lay in the harbours of Baſtia and San Fiorenza, but were not admitted to land. The conditions being at laſt ſettled with the republic, the different embarkations received orders to ſail to Calvi, Algaiola, and Ajaccio: at which ports the tranſports were diſburdened of their unhappy freight; and the ſurviving Jeſuits, to the number, it is ſaid, of two thouſand three hundred, were landed.

July 8th.

Without conſidering the religious or political tenets of this ſociety (which appear to have been dangerous, from the general perſecution raiſed againſt them in ſo many countries of their own perſuaſion) we are obliged, as men, to ſympathize with them in the miſeries which they underwent in their exile. The lying crowded for three months aboard tranſports, in the hotteſt ſeaſon of a hot climate, would be reckoned a ſevere trial to landmen of the moſt robuſt conſtitutions. In this caſe we ſee a number of men, of all ages, and in every ſtate of health, not inured to hardſhips, bred up to letters and a ſedentary life; the conſtitutions that naturally attend that courſe of life, farther impaired by the grief, anxiety, and horror, which muſt be the conſequence of baniſhment from their native country, from friends, relations, and thoſe ties ſo dear to mankind, and, in that ſituation, obliged to undergo hardſhips, which prove ſo fatal to the hardieſt and beſt-ſeaſoned troops. The conſequences were what might have been naturally expected; they died in great numbers; and the general calamity was increaſed upon individuals by ſome of the ſhips being ſeparated in ſtorms, and toſſed about the iſlands of the Archipelago for ſeveral weeks.

As if all this had been only a prelude to the misfortunes of the Jeſuits, the parliament of Paris publiſhed an arret againſt them, wherein they were declared enemies to ſovereigns and the public tranquillity of kingdoms; and all thoſe who had been indulged with the liberty of ſtaying in the kingdom by the edict of November, 1764, were ordered to quit it in fifteen days, under pain of criminal proſecution. By this arret, they are forbid ever to return, under any pretence whatſoever; and the king is to be ſupplicated to apply to the pope, and to all other Catholic ſovereigns, and engage them to aboliſh a ſociety ſo dangerous to Chriſtianity and government. The other articles of this arret ſeemed to be a tranſcript of thoſe publiſhed in the ordinance at Madrid.

May 13th.

The King of Spain's orders relative to the Jeſuits were as well executed in the Spaniſh colonies as they had been at home. In the month of July, the Jeſuits of Mexico, to the number of 700, were ſuddenly arreſted, without the

leaſt previous notice, and ſtrongly ſecured till ſhips could be provided to convey them home. The ſame meaſures were as effectually purſued in other parts of the Spaniſh foreign dominions; and ſhips have ſince continually arrived in the ports of Old Spain, with cargoes of priſoners on board.

It is ſaid that the confiſcated eſtates and effects of the Jeſuits in the provinces of Mexico only, were computed to amount to the immenſe value of 77 millions of piaſters, or 385 millions of French livres. It is alſo ſaid that the effects which were found in their warehouſes in the different ports of Old Spain were valued at a prodigious ſum; and that the Jeſuits of Peru, and the ſouthern provinces of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, were richer than thoſe of Mexico. If theſe facts are truly ſtated, we may perhaps be able from them to form a more juſt concluſion of the cauſes that brought on the deſtruction of this ſociety, than thoſe that have been already aſſigned. Immenſe property in private hands, whether communities or ſingle perſons, has even in free countries been always attended with imminent danger to the poſſeſſors. In arbitrary governments, the only ſecurity that can attend ſuch property, depends upon the wants, the diſpoſition, or the caprice of a king or a miniſter; a tenure of all others the moſt precarious and dangerous.

Moſt of the Catholic powers in Europe had publiſhed edicts, during theſe tranſactions, to forbid, under ſevere penalties, the reception of the expulſed Jeſuits in any part of their dominions; ſo that there is ſcarcely an inſtance in hiſtory of any body of men ſo entirely cut off and ſeparated from the reſt of mankind. When affairs were entirely ſettled in Spain, and the novelty of the tranſaction began to wear off; the ſtorm, which had been for ſome time expected, fell at laſt upon the Jeſuits in Naples. The different houſes belonging to the ſociety in that capital, were ſuddenly inveſted by the civil and military power, their effects ſeized, and the members made priſoners. The garriſon in the mean time patrolled the city under arms, and prevented all diſturbances. Nov. 20th.

The ſame meaſures were taken in every part of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, where the Jeſuits had poſſeſſions; and the priſoners were without ceremony, or leave being aſked, all convoyed into the Pope's dominions; the vicinity of whoſe territories made every ſcheme of oppoſition fruitleſs. The court of Rome complained loudly at this outrage, and preſented memorials to all the foreign miniſters in that city. In theſe memorials the Pope complains, that the King of Naples has violated, in the firſt place, the divine right, by the manner in which his ſoldiers entered into holy places, and by the ſequeſtration of the eccleſiaſtical revenues, without conſulting the biſhops; ſecondly, the right of mankind, by forcibly depoſiting ſome of his ſubjects in the dominions of his holineſs, and by marching his troops into a country that was not his own; and laſtly, the right of good neighbourhood, in not communicating his deſign to the Pope, both as the head of the church,

church, and as a temporal prince, who has the ſupreme ſovereignty over Naples.

Theſe memorials produced the ſame effect, which the remonſtrances of weak princes to their powerful neighbours generally do; they were careleſly anſwered, and no farther notice taken of them. The cardinal Orſini, the Neapolitan miniſter at Rome, made a verbal declaration to the following purport; "That every ſovereign having a right to drive from his dominions perſons convicted of being enemies thereof;" no other means could be found of getting rid of thoſe fathers, than cauſing them to be eſcorted to the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, ſince the kingdom of Naples had no other frontiers; and that, as to the confiſcation and management of the effects of the ſociety, it no leſs belonged, by the ſame right of ſovereignty, to the royal treaſury.

It is ſaid, that the number of Jeſuits tranſported from the kingdom of Naples, excluſive of thoſe from Sicily, to the papal dominions, amounted to fifteen hundred. This inundation of ſtrangers was the more ſenſibly felt, as there had been ſo great a ſcarcity of corn for ſome years in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, that it was with the greateſt care and difficulty that they could guard againſt a famine, beſides that eight hundred of the Portugal Jeſuits were ſtill alive, and unprovided for there.

CHAP. VI.

Of Corſica; its ancient ſtate; granted by a Pope to the republic of Piſa; conquered by the Genoeſe; oppreſſive and impolitic government of it. The Corſicans offer to ſubmit themſelves to the Turks. The beginning of the preſent troubles in that iſland; the Prince of Wirtemberg with an imperial army compels the malecontents to ſubmit. The troubles begin again. Theodore proclaimed king. French army ſubdue the iſland; but upon their departure the malecontents renew the war with more fury than ever. Paſchal Paoli declared general of the Corſicans; he drives the Genoeſe to the fortified towns upon the coaſts; and eſtabliſhes a regular government. The conqueſt of the iſland of Capraja.

THE ſtrenuous efforts which have been made for a number of years, by the natives of the iſland of Corſica, to recover their liberty from the Genoeſe; have in a conſiderable degree attracted the attention of the other nations of Europe. This ſeems now to be more particularly the caſe; as under the conduct of their preſent chief, they not only bid fair for being entirely independent, but they have drawn the outlines, and ſeem diſpoſed to eſtabliſh a regular and permanent form of government; a meaſure, which the Genoeſe, without foreign aſſiſtance, are in no degree capable of preventing.

Republics, though fond of boaſting of the great advantages of freedom, yet ſeem to think it too great a bleſſing to be communicated to others, ſo they are looked upon to be the worſt maſters in the world. The Italian republics have

have not eſcaped this cenſure; and one of the wiſeſt of them is ſaid to have ſuffered ſeverely, and to have loſt great power and property, by incurring it. Under ſuch a mode of government, it is probable that the Corſicans had frequent and ſufficient cauſes of complaint.

It was the peculiar unhappineſs of the inhabitants of this iſland, that they were in all ages a prey to foreigners; doomed to feel the iron hand of oppreſſion from every comer, they never ſeem to have had a fixed or permanent government of their own. This continual ſtate of oppreſſion depended in a great meaſure upon their central ſituation; in a manner ſurrounded by great, warlike, and powerful nations.

This iſland, after a continued ſeries of revolutions, if paſſing from the hands of one tyrant to another may be called ſo, was at length granted by one of the popes to the republic of Piſa, which was then a very conſiderable maritime ſtate. In the long wars which enſued between this republic and that of Genoa, Corſica was a particular object of their contention; and, after a tedious ſtruggle, was conquered by the Genoeſe about the beginning of the fourteenth century. The conduct of the Genoeſe in the government of this iſland, ſeems in general to have been cruel, arbitrary, and impolitic. So large a number of nobles, who looked upon themſelves as joint monarchs of an iſland, which increaſed their vanity by having the name of a kingdom, wanted each, in his own individual perſon, to ſhew ſome extraordinary exertion of power, that might perpetuate his fame as a ſovereign. Senſible alſo of their own weakneſs, their councils were guided by continual fear and diſtruſt; ſo that their ſyſtem ſeemed to be rather to keep the iſland deſart and barbarous, in hope of ſecurity in the poſſeſſion, than to ſuffer any improvement that could make it beneficial either to the natives or themſelves.

The Corſicans were far from being paſſive during this long courſe of oppreſſion. In the 16th century they carried on a bloody and deſperate war, which continued ſeveral years, and in which they were very near ſucceeding againſt the Genoeſe; and when at laſt they were overcome, they offered to ſubmit themſelves to the Turks, rather than return under the yoke of their old maſters.

The preſent troubles began about the year 1729: it is true, there have been ſome intervals of tranquillity, but they were only of a ſhort continuance, and peace has never ſince been thoroughly eſtabliſhed in the iſland. The Genoeſe, after ſeveral encounters, finding their own force inſufficient to reduce the malecontents, were obliged to call in an imperial army under General Wachtendonck to their aſſiſtance; but this army being alſo unable to reduce the Corſicans, a ſtronger was obliged to be brought in under the command of the Prince of Wirtemberg. The Corſicans, unable to reſiſt ſo ſuperior a force, were obliged to come into a treaty under the emperor's guarantee. The gaining of this point is ſaid to have coſt the Genoeſe thirty millions of French livres: the troubles aroſe from the cruel treatment of a

poor woman, for a ſingle paolo, about five pence Engliſh, which was her ſhare of a tax that ſhe was unable to pay.

The peace was but of ſhort duration: ſoon after the departure of the imperial troops, the Genoeſe are ſaid to have broke through every article of the treaty, 1734. and hoſtilities were again renewed with as much rage as ever. The Genoeſe, now left to their own ſtrength, carried on the war with little ſucceſs; there was a great deal of blood ſpilt, and much miſchief done, but no effectual ſervice performed; and while the country was continually waſted by both parties, its mountainous nature greatly befriended the natives. At this time Giafferi, who was the chief of the Corſicans in both theſe inſurrections, choſe for his colleague, Giacinto Paoli, father to the preſent General of that nation.

The Genoeſe were greatly embarraſſed; they hired a body of Swiſs and Griſons, who from the mountainous nature of their country, they thought might have been fitter for the Corſican ſervice than their own troops. They alſo publiſhed an indemnity to all their aſſaſſins and outlaws of every ſort, upon condition that they would fight the battles of the republic in Corſica.

It was during theſe tranſactions, that the famous Theodore Baron Newhoff arrived in the 1736. iſland, and was declared king of it. The hiſtory of this adventurer is well known. After about eight months enjoyment of his royalty, being ſeized with a conſciouſneſs of the fatal dangers which would probably attend the detection of his falſehoods, and the impoſition he had put upon the people, he prudently withdrew from his kingdom, under pretence of going to haſten the ſuccours which he had ſo long promiſed.

The republic of Genoa was at length obliged to enter into a treaty with France, to reduce the Corſicans to obedience. It was in vain that the malecontents remonſtrated to his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, againſt the cruelty and injuſtice of this procedure; a detachment of French troops were ſent to Cor- March, ſica, under the command 1738. of the count de Boiſſeaux. Though theſe troops did a great deal of miſchief in the iſland, yet they were inſufficient to ſubdue the invincible ſpirit of the iſlanders. Upon this the French court ſent the following year, the marquis de Maillebois at the head of a conſiderable army to reduce them entirely to obedience.

This general executed the deſigns of his court effectually; the Corſicans were every where overpowered, and ſlaughter, ruin, and deſtruction were ſpread through every part of the iſland. He cut down the ſtanding corn, the vines, and the olives, ſet fire to the villages, hanged numbers of monks and others who were moſt forward in the revolt, and ſpread ſuch terror and deſolation in every quarter, that the natives were once more obliged to ſubmit to their ancient bondage. The unprecedented and terrible ſlaughter which had been committed, with the dread of ſtill greater vengeance from ſo formidable a nation as France, effaced every idea but that of immediate ſafety. The two

two generals, Giafferi and Paoli, were obliged to quit the iſland, to which they never returned; they retired to Naples, where they got regiments, and ſpent the remainder of their lives.

Among many other propoſals which the republic of Genoa made at this time to France, one was, to aſſign over a great number of the inhabitants of Corſica, who were to be ſent to people the diſtant French colonies; upon which a French writer remarks, "that the Genoeſe would have been ſatisfied to be ſovereigns of the bare rocks of Corſica, without ſubjects."

The French troops be- 1741. ing at length withdrawn from Corſica, the ſpirit of the inhabitants began again to appear in its full vigour. They had been obliged to deliver up their arms by the laſt capitulation; their exiled countrymen, in the different towns of Italy, ſupplied them with ſome; they ſtript the Genoeſe ſoldiers of others, which they were not very willing to uſe, but which were afterwards effectually employed againſt themſelves.

No ſpirit was ever more general than that which appeared in this inſurrection; men, women, and young boys, and even the clergy bore arms. They elected two new chiefs under the title of protectors; and having ſoon overrun the open country, they then beſieged and took the capital city of Corte, together with its ſtrong caſtle. A deſultory kind of war has been carried on, with ſome intermiſſions, ever ſince.

In the year 1745, the Engliſh, as allies to the King of Sardinia, ſent ſome men of war, who bombarded and took the cities of Baſtia and San Fiorenza, which they delivered up to the Corſicans. They however loſt theſe cities ſoon after, in conſequence of the diſſenſions produced by the ambition and diſagreement of their leaders and principal men. In the year 1746, they ſent propoſals to the Britiſh embaſſador at Turin, to put themſelves under the protection of the crown of Great Britain; which propoſals it appears were not accepted. In 1753, their leader, Gaffori, was aſſaſſinated by ſome ruffians, who were ſuppoſed to be ſet on by the republic, as they had penſions allowed them in its territories.

During theſe tranſactions, Giacinto Paoli led a retired life in Naples; his whole time was devoted to the education of his ſon Paſcal, whoſe genius and diſpoſition were ſo happy, that no part of it was miſpent. The father ſeemed to have a pre-ſentiment of what his ſon would arrive at; the courſe of education he preſcribed, was calculated to form a prince and a legiſlator; and the young man made ſo excellent an uſe of the inſtructions which he received, that he became the admiration of ſtrangers, as well as of his countrymen.

The Corſicans tired of the continual diſſenſions among their principal men, and of the conſequent evils that attended them; charmed beſides with the character and manners of young Paoli; ſent a deputation to invite him to Corſica, and to offer him the ſupreme government of the iſland.
This offer was gladly ac- 1755.
cepted.

There was much to be reformed in Corſica: all forms of legal juſtice

had been long laid aſide; he found neither ſubordination, diſcipline, nor union, amongſt the people; all feuds and diſputes were terminated by aſſaſſinations, every one of which begot a number of new ones; the people, trained up in continual war, deſpiſed agriculture, and every ſpecies of induſtry; in a word, Paoli ſeemed in many inſtances to have more difficulties to contend with, than the legiſlators of the moſt early ages.

The happineſs of his genius, and the reverence that was paid to his virtues, enabled him, however, to triumph over all theſe difficulties. His perſuaſion and example had ſuch force in forming the people, that he ſoon drove the Genoeſe to the remoteſt corners of the iſland; nor had they any ſecurity but in the few fortified towns which they poſſeſſed upon the ſea-coaſt. He then attended to the civil part of the adminiſtration, in which he ſhewed ſuch abilities and conſtancy, as were little to be expected in ſo young a man. He new modelled the government; but inſtead of taking advantage of the influence which he had on the people to eſtabliſh a tyranny, he founded a democracy. He formed a great council of the nation, by which every perſon in it was repreſented by two members for every pariſh, who were elected annually. He formed good laws, and had them ſtrictly executed; ſo that, in a little time, he almoſt entirely eradicated the practice of aſſaſſination, as well as many other enormities.

He made many other regulations, which, if he purſues the ſame virtuous courſe in which he ſet out, will perpetuate his name with great honour to poſterity. He eſtabliſhed an univerſity at Corte; he had proper ſchools fixed in all the villages in the kingdom; and by theſe means he opened the minds of the Corſicans, and gradually prepared them for the reception of laws.

In the mean time, the republic of Genoa finding herſelf incapable of defending the few fortified places which remained in her hands, entered into a negociation with France; in conſequence of which the latter ſent ſix battalions to ſecure them, 1764. according to treaty, for four years. Theſe troops were reſtrained, by the conditions, from acting offenſively againſt the Corſicans.

This meaſure having in a great degree circumſcribed Paoli's operations by land; it alſo ſerved to direct his activity to another ſphere. He had for ſome time paſt taken great pains to form ſomething like a marine force; he now attended to it with greater diligence, and was ſo ſucceſsful as greatly to incommode the Genoeſe trade, as well as their conveyance of troops and ſtores, &c. to Corſica. In the courſe of this year he formed a ſucceſsful deſign, which was as unexpected by his enemies, as it was ſurpriſing to the reſt of Europe.

The iſland of Capraja, on the coaſt of Tuſcany, belonged to the Genoeſe; it is about ſix miles in length, and from two to three broad; it is very rocky and mountainous, but fertile in vines, of which it produces a great quantity. The inhabitants are computed to be about 3000; and the men are ſaid to be the beſt ſailors

in

in the Mediterranean; the iſland is ſo guarded and ſurrounded by rocks, that it affords but one landing place; the harbour is however a very good one, and a common place of ſhelter to the ſhips that navigate that quarter.

Paoli conducted an embarkation for the conqueſt of this place, with ſo much ſecrecy, that the firſt account which the Genoeſe received of it, was the ſucceſsful landing of his troops. The republic uſed every effort to prevent the loſs of the place, and ſent out a conſiderable naval force, with a body of troops, which were continually reinforced for that purpoſe. In the mean time, the ſmall garriſon of Genoeſe in that iſland retired to the principal fort, which was called the Citadel, where they were immediately beſieged by the Corſicans, who guarded the landing-place ſo well, that the Genoeſe were ſeveral times repulſed in the attempts they made to relieve the fort. At length, they however effected a landing, but were totally repulſed with the loſs of 150 men; and the garriſon being reduced to the greateſt neceſſity for want of proviſions, they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender the fortreſs May 29th, after a defence of 1767. 102 days, during which they had lived upon bread and water.

CHAP. VII.

Great diſtreſſes of the poor from the high prices of proviſions; riots and tumults thereupon; ſeveral of the rioters taken; ſpecial commiſſions iſſued for their immediate trial. A proclamation againſt foreſtalling; the parliament prorogued; an embargo laid on ſhips loaded with wheat. The ſtate of the Eaſt India Company; great diſputes between the members of it; their affairs become a ſubject of general diſcuſſion. Meſſage from the miniſtry to the court of India directors; a great increaſe of dividend carried by a numerous majority of proprietors. The parliament meet; notice taken, in the ſpeech from the throne, of the neceſſity that occaſioned the late exertion of authority, for the preſervation of the public ſafety.

SOON after the formation of the new miniſtry, the diſtreſſes of the poor from the high prices of corn, and every other ſpecies of proviſion, became very urgent, and cauſed great and general complaints through every part of the kingdom. Theſe complaints were followed by riots and tumults, in which, as uſual in popular commotions, great irregularities were committed. In the beginning, the populace only ſet up to regulate and lower the markets, and to puniſh ſome individuals, who they imagined had contributed to their calamities by engroſſing, and other practices for enhancing the price of proviſions beyond their juſt rate. But they did not long confine themſelves to theſe objects. When they were heated by being together in large bodies, they proceeded to the moſt enormous exceſſes.

ceſſes. Much miſchief was done, and many lives were loſt in different places. The magiſtrates being at length obliged to call in the military force to the aid of the civil; the rioters were eaſily diſperſed, and the jails filled with priſoners. Judges were ſoon after ſent to the countries where the riots had happened, with ſpecial commiſſions to bring the priſoners to immediate trial; in conſequence of which ſeveral of the leaders, and others the moſt outrageous of them, were condemned to die; moſt of theſe were, however afterwards reprieved, ſeveral were tranſported, ſome got a free pardon, and ſome examples were made.

Sept. 11th, 1766. In the mean time a proclamation was iſſued, for putting in force ſeveral ſtatutes that had been formerly paſſed againſt foreſtallers, regrators, and engroſſers of corn. But many doubted, whether this proclamation was well conceived, or well timed. It was, in ſome ſort, prejudging the queſtion, and declaring the ſcarcity to be artificial, which experience has ſince ſhewn to have been but too natural. Many of the old laws relative to proviſions are not well ſuited to the preſent ſyſtem of our affairs; nor are they quite conſonant to latter regulations upon the ſame ſubject. The old laws are at preſent dark in the conſtruction, and extremely difficult in the execution. It was apprehended that this meaſure would have an effect contrary to the intentions of the council, and by frightening dealers from the markets, would increaſe that ſcarcity it was deſigned to remedy. This was ſo well felt, that little was done towards enforcing that proclamation, and it ſoon fell to the ground. The ſame day on which this proclamation was paſſed, the parliament, which was to have met on the 16th of September, was prorogued to the 11th of the following November.

Sept. 26th. The price of wheat ſtill increaſing, another proclamation was iſſued, (better adapted to its end than the former, but more doubtful in point of law,) to prohibit the exportation of grain. Meſſengers were diſpatched to the ſea-coaſts, to ſee that the terms of the proclamation were complied with, and to prevent ſuch ſhips as were loaded with wheat, or wheat-meal, at the ſeveral ports, from proceeding with their cargoes. At the ſame time, the uſe of wheat was prohibited the diſtillery. The former proclamation became afterwards a ſubject of much altercation in parliament.

We gave in our laſt volume a particular account of the great acquiſitions that had been gained by the Eaſt India company; of the flouriſhing ſtate of its affairs; and the appearances there were of a ſtability proportioned to this greatneſs. The later advices not only confirmed, but enlarged the value of theſe acquiſitions; as every day ſhewed their greater importance, and diſcovered ſome new part of the immenſe property, which the company was poſſeſſed of in that part of the world. Immenſe ſpoil, as it has often appeared too great for the minds of the conquerors, ſo it has ſometimes ſunk them to a worſe condition

dition than that in which they had left the vanquiſhed. The amazing ſucceſſes of the company, and the vaſt profits ariſing from them, firſt kindled diſſenſion among their ſervants in the Eaſt, and then produced contentions of equal violence in the company itſelf.

It had been long expected, and much wiſhed by the proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, that they ſhould enjoy a ſhare of thoſe ſweets, which were the conſequences of their foreign ſucceſs; and which they ſaw hitherto entirely engroſſed by their ſervants, who came home every day incumbered with princely fortunes. As the proſperous ſtate of the company's affairs was now publicly known and aſcertained, it was accordingly expected by many proprietors, that the directors would have immediately declared a ſuitable increaſe of dividend. This ſeemed to them the more reaſonable, as the ſtate of dividend then ſtood at the loweſt point to which it ever had been reduced, having been lowered from eight to ſix per cent. in the moſt critical period of the late war; when the company was in a moſt diſtreſt ſituation, and a continuance even of its exiſtence appeared more than doubtful. They thought that a great revenue and a flouriſhing trade ill agreed with a low dividend, and tended to ſink, to an artificial lowneſs, the price of ſtock, to the great loſs of the preſent poſſeſſors, and the advantage of future dealers.

Theſe inclinations of the proprietors did not in any degree coincide with the opinion of the directors. While the greateſt part of the former conſidered only the ſucceſſes of the company, the directors ſaw nothing but its debts. Two factions aroſe upon this ſubject; one for increaſing the dividend; the other, which was influenced by the direction, for keeping it at the then ſtandard of ſix per cent. At the midſummer court, it was intended by the former, that if the directors did not voluntarily declare an increaſe of dividend, to put it to the queſtion, and have it decided by the majority of proprietors preſent.

As this intention was publicly known, ſo its ſucceſs was ſufficiently guarded againſt, and prevented. At June 18th. the opening of the court, a friend of the directors made a motion for increaſing the dividend to eight per cent; the directors having declared their diſapprobation of this motion, the maker immediately withdrew it. This adroit management put it entirely out of the power of the proprietors to bring it on again at that meeting, as it would have been contrary to the eſtabliſhed rules and forms of the court.

The addreſs that was ſhewn in this tranſaction did not protect it from cenſure: the conduct of the directors was ſcrutinized with great ſeverity: the ſuppoſed motives to it were laid open, and the public papers became the common field for the diſcuſſion of India affairs, which were canvaſſed with great animoſity, each party accuſing the other of the moſt corrupt deſigns, and of miſrepreſenting, for private purpoſes the real ſtate of the company's affairs. The party for the directors admitted that the company had gained great advantages in the Eaſt; but at the

the ſame time had plunged themſelves into great difficulties by the expence attending their extenſive military operations. That their profits were comparatively remote and precarious; their debts urgent and certain; and that juſtice and good policy concurred in recommending, in the firſt place, a diſcharge of their incumbrances, before they thought of enjoying their profits. They recalled the tranſactions of the memorable South-ſea year, and the fraudulent methods then uſed for the raiſing of that ſtock. They aſſerted that ſuch a premature attempt to augment the dividend, would raiſe the price of their fund to an extravagant height, at which it would be impoſſible to ſupport it, would add freſh fuel to the ardor for gaming, encourage ſtock-jobbing, and open a new field to all the myſterious tranſactions of 'Change Alley.

On the other hand, it was repreſented as the greateſt hardſhip, that many of thoſe proprietors whoſe property had lain in the hands of the company during the moſt dangerous periods of the war, might now, through neceſſity, be obliged to diſpoſe of their ſtock, without having the ſmalleſt compenſation made them for the great riſks they had run. That, in this caſe, new men, whether natives or foreigners, would come in for the benefits to which the old proprietors were ſo juſtly entitled, as the marketable price of ſtock always depended upon the dividend it yielded. That it was a novelty peculiar to the preſent time, to ſee that the poſſeſſors of property were the only people who could not enjoy any of the advantages ariſing from it. That the cautious œconomy of the directors was confined to the proprietors only, while motions for the moſt profuſe private grants were eagerly adopted by them.

As to the debts which the company owed; the reaſons drawn from thence for not increaſing the dividend were, they inſiſted, futile and abſurd. It was ſaid, that the company, while ever it continued a commercial one, as well as every other company of merchants, muſt always, in the nature of things, owe large ſums of money: That, in the preſent caſe, the creditors looked upon their ſecurity to be ſo good, and thought their money ſo well laid out, that there was nothing they feared more than the payment of it; a clear proof of which was, that the bonds bore a premium, ſo that they could ſell them for more than the original debt that was owing on them. The Dutch Eaſt-India company was alſo introduced as a precedent, which divided 20 *per cent.* upon its capital, though the poſſeſſions and revenues of the Dutch, in that part of the world, were not at preſent in any degree equal to thoſe of the Engliſh.

As to the invidious mention of the South-ſea bubble, they obſerved that it was no way applicable to the preſent caſe: that the high rate of that ſtock was built upon an imaginary baſis, which had no real exiſtence; ſo that its ſucceſs depended entirely upon the paſſions and covetouſneſs of the people, which were the only engines it had to make uſe of. That, on the contrary, nothing could be better aſcertained than the property of the company; and that nothing could

could be more equitable, than that the poſſeſſors of this property, ſhould be able, whenever they thought fit, to diſpoſe of it at the full and real value. That when every man, buyer and ſeller, knew the intrinſic value of ſtock, by the dividend which it yielded, there would be no further room for ſtock-jobbing; but that the uncertainty, which the preſent mode of conduct occaſioned, operated ſo ſtrongly and ſo differently upon the minds of the public, that there was a greater fluctuation in the price, and the pernicious effects of ſtock-jobbing were more ſenſibly felt, than they had been at any other time.

This courſe of diſſenſion and altercation between the members of the ſame company, was productive of conſequences, which were then little foreſeen or expected. Every thing relative to them was now laid before the public; the exact ſtate of their immenſe property became known to all perſons; their moſt private ſecrets were unveiled: their charters, their rights, their poſſeſſions, their conduct at home and abroad; their diſputes, and their utility to the nation, were now matters of eager and public diſcuſſion. The company became the ground for the moſt abſurd projector to build his viſionary ſcheme on; and its property was an object to exerciſe the invention of the idle, the needy, and the rapacious.

As the quarterly meeting approached, at which it was expected, that the great object of diſpute between the oppoſite parties would come again upon the carpet, it was for ſome time whiſpered about by the friends of one of them, that the government intended to interfere in ſome manner in the diſpoſition of India affairs.

Such an interference had been ſo unuſual, that the report at firſt gained no manner of credit. A few days before the meeting of the Michaelmas general court, a meſſage was, however, actually received by the directors, from the miniſtry; and it was immediately noiſed about, that the government had abſolutely forbidden any increaſe of dividend, and had alſo denounced threats againſt the company, which ſtruck at its very exiſtence,

The novelty of an Engliſh miniſter of ſtate venturing to interfere, as an officer of the crown, in a matter of private property, excited, in the higheſt degree, the attention of all ſorts of people. Many, however, ſtill ſuppoſed that the report was calculated only to anſwer the particular purpoſes of a party, or, at leaſt, that the terms were upon that account greatly exaggerated. The opening of the general court at length relieved this curioſity; a meſſage in writing from the firſt Lord of the Treaſury, and ſome other of the miniſters, was read, ſetting forth, Sept. 24th.

"That, as the affairs of the Eaſt-India company had been mentioned in parliament laſt ſeſſion, it was very probable they might be taken into conſideration again; therefore, from the regard they had for the welfare of the company, and that they might have time to prepare their papers for that occaſion, they informed them, that the parliament would meet ſome time in November."

Letters

Letters were at the ſame time read from Lord Clive, and from the ſecret committee at Bengal, which not only confirmed but exceeded the accounts that had been formerly received of the great opulence of the company, the extenſion of its trade, and the permanent baſis on which, as far as human foreſight could judge, its ſecurity was now eſtabliſhed. The directors, notwithſtanding, ſtill oppoſed an increaſe of dividend; and upon a motion being made for that purpoſe, they inſiſted on a ballot, by which the deciſion was evaded for a day or two. Another general court being called, this long-conteſted queſtion was decided by ballot, and the dividend, which was to take place from the enſuing Chriſtmas, was increaſed, by a prodigious majority, from ſix to ten per cent.

We ſhall take no farther notice of the ſquabbles between the members of the Eaſt-India company; we have already ſeen that they had brought on them the attention of the miniſtry: a little time more gave them an earneſt of the conſequences: and as the diſpoſition of their affairs was in a great meaſure taken out of their own hands, we are from that time to conſider them not as a private but a public object.

Such was the ſituation of affairs when the parliament met in the beginning of the winter 1766. The ſpeech from the throne obſerved, that the high price of wheat, and the great demand for it from abroad, had occaſioned their being aſſembled ſo early. It took notice of the urgent neceſſity that occaſioned an exertion of the royal authority, for the preſervation of the public ſafety, by laying an embargo on wheat and wheat-flour going out of the kingdom. It expreſſed a warm ſenſe of the late daring inſurrections; a reſolution that the criminals ſhould be puniſhed, and obedience to the government and the laws reſtored.

CHAP. VIII.

A bill of indemnity for thoſe concerned in the late embargo, brought in; great debates thereon; the bill paſſed. The bill for reſtraining all acts of the aſſembly of New-York, brought in and paſſed. Land tax reduced to three ſhillings in the pound. Great debates upon India affairs; propoſals made by the company for an accommodation with government; the propoſals accepted, and a bill paſſed for that purpoſe. Bill for regulating India dividends; great debates thereon; the bill paſſes, and the houſe breaks up.

EVER ſince the 15th of Charles the Second, corn, when under a certain price, might be legally exported. Whenever it had been thought proper to break in upon this principle, it was always done by act of parliament. But when the proclamation was iſſued, corn had not reached the price within which the exportation had been permitted. To lay an embargo therefore, by any ſuppoſed authority legally exiſting, in the king and council under ſuch circum-

cumſtances, ſeemed to be a diſpenſing with an act of parliament. Though the laying of the embargo on wheat was an expedient, and probably at that time a neceſſary meaſure, than which nothing could be more highly popular, yet the mode of that tranſaction was looked upon by the more diſcerning in a very dangerous light, as by it the crown ſeemed to aſſume and exerciſe a power of diſpenſing with the laws. This was one of the grievances which had been the moſt effectually provided againſt at the revolution; at which time it was declared to be utterly and directly contrary to the known laws, ſtatutes, and freedom, of the kingdom. To prevent therefore the eſtabliſhment of ſo dangerous a precedent, and to perpetuate a knowledge to poſterity, that nothing leſs than a law could protect from due puniſhment the framers or executors of an illegal act; and at the ſame time to do juſtice to the rectitude of a proceeding, which, though not authorized by law, was done for public good,

Nov. 14. a bill was brought in to indemnify all perſons who had acted in obedience to the late act of council for the embargo,

Thoſe who conducted the miniſterial buſineſs in the houſe of commons gave but little oppoſition to this bill when it was ſuggeſted to them; a principal ſervant of the crown brought it in; and there appeared on this occaſion, for the firſt time, plain marks of ſome diſagreement of opinion, and alienation of affection, among the miniſtry. However, it was remarked, that, though this bill provided for the indemnity of the inferior officers, who had acted under the proclamation, yet it paſſed by the council who adviſed it; and had not a preamble fully expreſſive of the illegality of the meaſure. In theſe reſpects the bill was amended and made perfect. But this produced much altercation and debate, eſpecially in the houſe of lords. Some of the miniſtry and their friends, who had been not only the warmeſt advocates for liberty, but who ſet up as the patrons and defenders of it, were charged with ſuch a change in their minds and opinions, that they vindicated the preſent exertions of prerogative, not only from the peculiar circumſtances that ſeemed to influence it, but they alſo ſupported it as a matter of right; and aſſerted, that a diſpenſing power, in caſes of ſtate neceſſity, was one of the prerogatives inherent to the crown. This ſeeming deſertion, from the ſide of liberty, to principles ſo directly oppoſite, as it had ſome ſevere ſtrictures made upon it within doors, ſo it was the occaſion of many pointed ſarcaſms without, on the beaten ſubject of occaſional patriotiſm.

In the courſe of the debates occaſioned by theſe high prerogative tenets, the real cauſes of the neceſſity for the late exertion of power were firſt enquired into; and then the doctrine of a diſpenſing power in ſuch caſes was ably and powerfully attacked. It was urged, that the miniſtry had received ſuch information in the beginning of Auguſt, of the ſtate of the harveſt, the quantity of corn in the kingdom, and of the great increaſe of its price; that they became then as thoroughly maſters of the ſubject, and as fully ſenſible

of

of all the probable conſequences, as they had been at any time after that period. That, from this information, they ſhould at that time have iſſued a proclamation for the parliament to meet on the 16th of September, the day to which it was prorogued, to take that important matter into conſideration, which would have given the members above thirty days notice, and would have prevented every appearance of neceſſity for the miniſters to commit an illegal action.

That on the contrary, when the diſtreſſes of the poor were riſen to the higheſt pitch, they iſſued, on the 10th of September, an ineffectual proclamation againſt foreſtalling, which could not give them the ſmalleſt relief; and on the ſame day prorogued the parliament from the 16th of laſt month to the 11th of November following. That by this long, unſeaſonable, and extraordinary prorogation, all advice of parliament was precluded; all legal reſtrictions of the export, as well as effectual proviſions to increaſe the ſtock of grain, were entirely put out of the queſtion; and in caſe of riots, tumults, or even a rebellion, it was put out of the king's power to receive their aſſiſtance. That the proclamation for an embargo was iſſued in ſixteen days after that for ſo long a prorogation; though the reaſons given in it, for ſo extraordinary an exertion of authority, was, that his majeſty had not an opportunity of taking the advice of his parliament.

On the other hand, the advocates for the diſpenſing prerogative, citing the opinion of Mr. Locke, aſſerted, that it was ridiculous to ſuppoſe any ſtate without a power of providing for the public ſafety in caſes of emergency. That this power muſt in all ſtates be lodged ſomewhere; and that in ours it was lodged in the king. They maintained that this doctrine was not contrary to the ſecurity of the conſtitution, or to the ſpirit of liberty, ſince they admitted that it could be legally exerted only in caſes of great neceſſity during the receſs of parliament, and when parliament cannot be conveniently aſſembled; that in thoſe caſes the evil cannot be very great, ſince it is but forty days tyranny at worſt.

To this it was anſwered, that this doctrine of neceſſity was the very principle by which all the evil practices in the reigns of the Stuarts had been defended. That the advocates for the crown in the reign of Charles the Firſt, would have added this exception of neceſſity to the petition of right; the houſe of lords had even come into it, but, upon conference with the commons, were convinced that this exception would have enervated the whole law; and it was accordingly rejected. As to the plea of neceſſity, this anſwer is ready in the mouth of every one; that if the crown is the judge of that neceſſity, the power is unlimited, becauſe the diſcretion of the prince and his council may apply it to any inſtance whatever: and ſo diſcretion degenerates into deſpotiſm. Therefore the wiſdom of the conſtitution has excluded every diſcretion in the crown over poſitive laws, and emancipated acts of parliament from the royal prerogative, leaving the power of ſuſpenſion, which is but another word for a temporary repeal, to reſide where the legiſlature is lodged, to which

which only it can belong, that is, in king, lords, and commons, who together conſtitute the only ſupreme ſovereign authority of this government. Nor did parliament ever allow of the diſpenſing power, or any thing of the kind, becauſe it was exerciſed under the ſpecious pretence of the ſafety of the nation being concerned, and the whole kingdom in danger, which was the uſual jargon, and, if true, implied the moſt urgent neceſſity.

That the receſs of parliament, or its not being convenient to aſſemble it, are diſtinctions not known by the conſtitution. That, as it is now modelled, the parliament muſt always be in being, ready to be called, and that in ſo great a degree, that even an expired parliament revives when neceſſary to be aſſembled, and another is not choſen. That as to the laws, there are no days in which acts of parliament ſleep. They are not like juriſdictions, that may be evaded by going into a ſanctuary, They are of equal force while in being, at all times, in all places, and over all perſons; though made in a ſhort time, they have a conſtant and laſting force. Acts of the executive power are incident, temporary, and inſtantaneous; but acts of parliament are permanent, made as the general rule by which the ſubject is to live and be governed.

Unleſs therefore it can be ſaid, that the moment parliament breaks up, the king ſtands in its place, and the continuance of acts is reſigned into his hands, he cannot of right ſuſpend any more than he can make laws, both requiring the ſame power. The law is above the king; and the crown, as well as the ſubject, is bound by it, as much during the receſs as in the ſeſſions of parliament; becauſe no point of time, nor emergent circumſtance, can alter the conſtitution, or create a right not antecedently inherent; theſe only draw forth into action the power that before exiſted, but was quieſcent. There is no ſuch prerogative in any hour or moment of time, as veſts the ſemblance of a legiſlative power in the crown.

If the crown had a legal right to ſuſpend or break through any one law, it muſt have an equal right to break through them all. That no true diſtinction can be made between the ſuſpending power and the crown's raiſing money without the conſent of parliament. That they are preciſely alike, and ſtand upon the very ſame ground. They were born twins, lived together, and together, it was hoped, were buried at the revolution, paſt all power of reſurrection. That if any difference was to be made, between raiſing money and the ſuſpending and diſpenſing power, the latter is the moſt dangerous, as that which might do the moſt univerſal miſchief, and with the greateſt ſpeed, as it includes the whole. But that, as neither of them ever did belong to the crown, no doctrine is admiſſible that maintains either the one or the other. That the preſent diſtinctions are only an alleviation of the diſpenſing power to ſweeten it ſo as to go down, it being too nauſeous in the full ſtinking potion. That the ſafety of the crown, as well as the ſecurity of the ſubject, requires us to ſhut up every avenue that leads to tyranny; and that the ſupereminent prero-

gative of the kings of England, by which they excel in glory all the ſovereigns upon earth, is this, that they rule over freemen, not over ſlaves.

Upon the whole, it was ſaid, that if the doctrine of ſuſpenſion, on the plea of ſtate neceſſity, was admitted as conſtitutional, the revolution could be called nothing but a ſucceſsful rebellion, and a lawleſs and wicked invaſion of the rights of the crown; the bill of rights, a falſe and ſcandalous libel, and an infamous impoſition both on prince and people; and that James the Second neither abdicated nor forfeited, but was robbed of his crown.

In the courſe of theſe debates, the neceſſity of the embargo was univerſally allowed; and the illegality of the authority was only objected to. It was much to the ſatisfaction of the public, that this bill was paſſed; and many were ſurprized, that the gentlemen, who, without regularly agreeing in principles, oppoſed it, would hazard their popularity upon an occaſion, that did not ſeem attended with any apparent advantages equal to the riſk. Dec. 9.

The factious turbulent ſpirit, which ſeemed to have taken poſſeſſion of the minds of ſome of our North American colonies on occaſion of the ſtamp-act, was far from being mollified by the lenient conceſſions in their favour, and the great conſideration ſhewn to their circumſtances by the legiſlature. Not content with the private acts of outrage that were too often repeated, and marks of diſreſpect to government which were too frequently ſhewn; the aſſembly of New York had, in direct oppoſition to the act of laſt ſeſſion, for the providing of the troops with neceſſaries in their quarters, paſſed an act of aſſembly, by which theſe proviſions were regulated and ſettled in a mode of their own, without any regard to that preſcribed by parliament.

This affair, being brought before the houſe, occaſioned many debates; and ſome rigorous meaſures were propoſed. The general opinion, however, was rather to bring them to temper, and a ſenſe of their duty, by acts of moderation, which ſhould at the ſame time ſufficiently ſupport the dignity of the legiſlature, than by rigorous meaſures to inflame ſtill farther that ſpirit of diſcontent which was already too prevalent among them. Upon theſe principles, a bill was paſſed, by June 15th. which the governor, council, and aſſembly of New York, were prohibited from paſſing or aſſenting to any act of aſſembly, for any purpoſe whatſoever, till they had in every reſpect complied with all the terms of the act of parliament. This reſtriction, though limited to one colony, was a leſſon to them all, and ſhewed their comparative inferiority when brought in queſtion with the ſupreme legiſlative power.

An event which happened this ſeſſion, as it ſhewed a want of ſtrength in the miniſtry, ſo it alſo made many think that it foreboded a diſſolution to their exiſtence in that character. The taxes, with which all the neceſſaries of life were loaded, in conſequence of the expences of the laſt war, lay ſo heavy upon the laborious and manufacturing part of the

the nation, that it was thought more proper, ſince the concluſion of the peace, to continue the land tax at four ſhillings in the pound, than to add to the diſtreſſes of the people, by increaſing thoſe upon neceſſaries. This was a new meaſure; any addition to the land-tax, that was formerly granted to carry on a war, was always taken off at the return of peace; but as that cuſtom had been now for ſome years broken through, the whole land-tax began to be conſidered as a part of the ſettled revenue, that was appointed to anſwer the current ſervices of the year. It was then, to the great ſurpriſe and diſappointment of the miniſters, that a reſolution paſſed the houſe, ſupported by a conſiderable majority, which reduced the land-tax for the preſent year to three ſhillings in the pound. This was ſaid to have been the firſt money bill, in which any miniſter had been diſappointed ſince the revolution; and it was now looked upon as a fatal ſymptom of weakneſs. In this the public was however miſtaken, though appearances ſeemed ſtrongly to countenance the opinion.

The great buſineſs of the ſeſſion was that of the Eaſt-India company, from whence great expectations had been conceived, and on which violent debates aroſe in both houſes; as this matter involved conſtitutional points of the higheſt nature, and indeed was in all reſpects of great importance. It was remarked, that though it ſeemed the capital miniſterial meaſure; yet, whether from diſapprobation of the mode and principles of the enquiry, or from ſome diſcontent among themſelves, is uncertain; but the principal officers of the crown in the houſe of commons ſeemed from the beginning very much reſerved in this affair.

A committee had been appointed early in the ſeſſion, to look into the ſtate and condition of the company. It was ſome time after ordered, after ſeveral warm debates, that copies of the company's charters, their treaties with, and grants from the country powers; together with their letters and correſpondence to and from their ſervants in India; the ſtate of their revenues in Bengal, Bahar, Orixa, and other places, ſhould all be laid before the houſe: alſo an account of all expences incurred by government on the company's account; whether in the naval, military, or whatever other departments. Great part of the ſeſſion was conſumed in fruitleſs diſcuſſions. Violent animoſities aroſe; and all the topics were bandied about, which can agitate the minds of a people, on one hand jealous of their liberties, and on the other, eager by every means to relieve the burthened ſtate of their finances. Nov. 25th.

In the courſe of this rigorous ſcrutiny, an order was made for printing the Eaſt India papers. The court of directors upon this preſented a petition, ſetting forth the great injury it would be to the company, and the many ill conſequences that would probably attend the printing of the private correſpondence between them and their ſervants. Upon this, a motion being made to diſcharge the former order, a debate enſued; but it was at laſt agreed that the private correſpondence ſhould not be printed.

Great queſtions, though not formally put, aroſe and were diſcuſſed

in the courſe of this enquiry. Among others, the right of the company to their territorial acquiſitions was called in queſtion. It was argued that they had no right by their charters to any conqueſt: that ſuch poſſeſſions in the hands of a trading corporation were improper and dangerous; and that if it were even legally and politically right that they ſhould hold thoſe territories, yet the vaſt expenditure of government, in the protection of that company, gave it a fair and equitable title to the revenues ariſing from the conqueſts.

Thoſe who maintained the rights of the company, denied that the crown had made any reſervation of ſuch requiſition as had been made by it. That it was a dangerous infringement on property and public faith to queſtion them, as the company had purchaſed its charters from the public, and that they were confirmed by act of parliament. That if the crown had any right to the poſſeſſions of that body in India, the courts were open for the trial of that claim; that the houſe of commons was not by the conſtitution, the interpreter of laws, or the decider of legal rights; that it would be of the moſt fatal conſequence to the liberties of Great Britain, if ever they ſhould aſſume it. That as to the equitable right pretended from the expences of government, the company ſtood as fair in that light as the crown, they having expended much greater ſums in acquiring the diſputed territories and revenues.

Upon theſe topics, this great point was debated; and though it was frequently taken up, the houſe appeared diſinclined to the determination of a queſtion teeming with ſuch important conſequences. A great man, then at the head of the finances, declared fully againſt trial of ſuch a right, in ſuch a court as the houſe of commons, and ſtrenuouſly recommended an amicable agreement with the company.

On the other ſide, a large party of the proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, tho' they ſtrenuouſly maintained, that the company was fully entitled by law to enjoy the benefit of the territorial acquiſitions it had made in India, during the remaining term of its charter; yet thought it would be happy, by a reaſonable compoſition to prevent all doubtful events. Many meetings were held to this purpoſe, and many ſchemes and propoſals, by the directors and others, were laid before the company.

In the mean time a general court was held, May 6th. wherein the dividend for the enſuing half year, to commence at Midſummer, was declared to be ſix and a quarter *per cent.* and about the ſame time, a ſcheme of propoſals for an accommodation was agreed to. Theſe were laid before the miniſtry, which by this time was publicly known to have unfortunately fallen into a ſtate of ſuch diſtraction, that they had no opinions in common. Accordingly they ſhifted the propoſals from one to another, and could come to no determination upon them, what to accept, or what to refuſe. So that the miniſtry declining to take any part in the negociation out of the houſe, a petition was preſented to parliament, which May 20th. contained two ſets of propoſals for a temporary agreement, which was to laſt for three years.

By

By the firſt of theſe propoſals, the government were to grant the company ſome advantages with reſpect to the inland duties on their teas, and a drawback on the exportation of them to Ireland and the colonies, and ſome others reſpecting raw ſilk, calicoes, muſlins, the recruiting ſervice and military ſtores. That in return, after deducting 400,000l. a year, in lieu of the company's former commercial profits; the nett produce of all the remaining revenues and trade, after deducting all charges, were to be equally divided between the government and the company; provided that the company's property in the new acquiſitions continued for three years.

By the ſecond propoſals, the company offered, upon the ſame terms, to pay the ſpecific ſum of 400,000l. a year, for three years, by half yearly payments; and to indemnify the public for any loſs the revenue might be at, by granting the advantages which they required in the tea trade; if the advanced conſumption of it, taken at an average of five years, did not anſwer that end. The petition concluded with a pathetic remonſtrance to the houſe, to intreat they would conſider the imminent dangers to which, in many critical conjunctures, their properties had been often expoſed; the very large ſums they had expended ſince the commencement of the wars in India, in which they had never been the aggreſſors; the low dividends which, notwithſtanding their few loſſes at ſea, they had received during a courſe of years; whilſt the public remained in the uninterrupted poſſeſſion of an annnal revenue, ariſing from the company's trade, of the full value of one third of their capital. They laſtly appealed to the favour and protection of the houſe, and flattered themſelves, that the circumſtances mentioned would intitle them to that candour and juſtice, which have ever been the characteriſtics of the Britiſh ſenate.

Theſe latter propoſals were accepted by the houſe, with this difference only, that the agreement was limited to two inſtead of three years, June 12th. and a bill was accordingly paſſed upon theſe terms.

A meſſage from the miniſtry had been read at the general court, which declared the laſt increaſe of dividend, recommending to the company to make no augmentation of it, till their affairs were further conſidered of. This meſſage not producing the deſigned effect, two bills were brought into the houſe, one for regulating the qualifications of voters in trading companies, and the other for further regulating the making of dividends by the Eaſt India company.

By the laſt of theſe bills the late act of the company was reſcinded, and they were tied down from raiſing their dividends above ten per cent. till the next meeting of parliament. This bill met with great oppoſition; the former debates were renewed with more warmth than ever, and the company ineffectually petitioned againſt it.

The company alſo made a propoſal, that if this bill, which ſtruck ſo immediately at their privileges, was laid aſide, they would bind themſelves from any farther increaſe of dividend, during the time

of the temporary agreement. This propoſal was as ineffectual as the petition.

The advocates for the bill, beſides many of thoſe arguments, which have already appeared in the courſe of the former diſputes between the members of the company, ſeemed to ground their motives on the following principles. To prevent the payment of a higher dividend than the circumſtances of the company could afford, without endangering their credit. To regulate the dividend in ſuch a manner, as to put an end to the fluctuation of that ſtock, which, if allowed to go on, was not only likely to introduce a pernicious ſpirit of gaming, but would alſo tend to keep down the other ſtocks, the riſe of which is a great means of reducing the intereſt of the national debt. That no encroachment might be made by any dividend of the company, upon the revenue of its late territorial acquiſitions, ſo that the claim of the public may ſuffer no loſs, till that affair was finally decided.

On the other ſide, the oppoſers to the bill ſhewed, that by the ſtate of the company's affairs, which were laid before the parliament, it was evident that they were in circumſtances able to make a much greater increaſe of dividend, without in any degree affecting their credit; as it appeared that they had effects not only amply ſufficient to diſcharge every juſt demand, but that, after even repaying their capital, a prodigious ſurplus would ſtill remain; and that a doubt of their being able to divide 80,000l. among themſelves, when they were allowed to be in circumſtances to pay the government 400,000l. a year, could ſcarcely deſerve a ſerious conſideration.

It was ſaid, that if a bill for reſtraining the future dividend of the company were proper, upon the ideas of fixing and preventing a fluctuation in the price of its ſtock; that end required only that the dividend ſhould be fixed, without any regard to the quantum of it, and may be as well attained by a dividend of $12\frac{1}{2}$ as of 10 per cent. That this is ſo far from being any part of the real purpoſe of the preſent bill, that the ſhort period to which the reſtriction is confined, cannot but increaſe, inſtead of preventing that fluctuation; and encourage, inſtead of checking the infamous practices of the alley. For that the paſſions of men would be warmly agitated during the ſummer, in ſpeculating on the probability of this reſtriction being ſuffered to expire on the opening of the next ſeſſion, or of its being farther continued. That the propoſal made by the company, of ſubmitting to a reſtriction of dividend of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. during the temporary agreement, would have obviated all thoſe miſchiefs, and ſecured every good end which might have been propoſed, but cannot be attained by the preſent bill; with this additional advantage, that as it would have been done with their conſent, it would have been liable to no objection of injuſtice or violence.

That the arguments which had been made uſe of, on a ſuppoſition that the right to the territorial acquiſitions in the Eaſt Indies was not lodged in the company, but in the public; if admitted as one of the grounds of the bill, was a precedent of the moſt dangerous nature; for the company being in poſ-

poſſeſſion, and no claim againſt them being ſo much as made, much leſs eſtabliſhed, it would be highly dangerous to the property of the ſubject, and extremely unbecoming the juſtice and dignity of parliament, by extrajudicial opinions, to call into queſtion the legality of ſuch a poſſeſſion.

Many other objections were made, as well to the form of this bill, as to the principles on which it was founded; and the probable conſequences that might attend it, were placed in a ſtrong point of view. Among the reſt it was obſerved, that a legiſlative interpoſition controuling the dividend of a trading company, which had been legally voted and declared by thoſe to whom the power of doing it was intruſted, and to whom there was no ground to impute an abuſe of that power; who had lent their money to the public upon the expreſs ſtipulation that they might exerciſe their diſcretion with regard to the dividends, provided that their effects, undivided, were ſufficient to anſwer their debts; was altogether without example. That, as it tended to leſſen the idea of that ſecurity and independence of the power of the ſtate, which had induced all Europe to depoſit their money in the funds of Great Britain, the precedent may be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences to public credit.

All theſe reaſons, and many others which were given, proved entirely ineffectual; the bill was carried through a great oppoſition in both houſes; in the upper houſe 59 lords voted for it, and 44 againſt it; and a ſtrong and nervous proteſt was entered againſt it, ſigned by 19 lords. June 26th.

An end was at length put to this tedious ſeſſion of parliament; after it had ſat almoſt the whole ſummer. July 2d.

The great hopes which had been formed, in the beginning, of the ſtrength and conſiſtence of the new miniſtry, which it was ſuppoſed, would act entirely under the guidance of the late great commoner, now a noble earl, began very early to wear off. Though the noble lord in queſtion had loſt much of his popularity by the acceptance of a peerage, and ſome other parts of his conduct; yet many were ſtill inclined to expect great national advantages from his being at the head of an adminiſtration of his own forming. Theſe hopes, whether well or ill founded, were nipped in the bud; the noble lord, in ſome time after the opening of the ſeſſion, fell into ſo bad a ſtate of health, that after an unſucceſsful trial of the Bath waters, he was obliged to relinquiſh all attention to buſineſs; in which ſituation he ſeems to have continued ever ſince.

This misfortune looſened the bands that ſhould have cemented the other members of adminiſtration: They had moſt of them, upon late occaſions, publicly acknowledged their inability as individuals to undertake the arduous taſk of government; and centered their whole hopes upon the ſuperior abilities of the nobleman we have mentioned. His incapacity having now left them without a head, there was no weight left to preſerve a proper union or ſubordination, ſo that they diſagreed both in meaſures and opinions; and the public were at a loſs where to look for the miniſter.

CHRO-

CHRONICLE.

JANUARY.

1. AT his majeſty's royal powder-mills at Feverſham, this morning about five minutes after the clock ſtruck twelve, a ſtove, in which were 25 barrels of gunpowder, blew up; happily no perſon was near at the time. The exploſion was ſo great, as to be heard 20 miles diſtant. Many windows of the houſes in town are ſhattered in pieces; and the violence of the ſhock occaſioned the floor of a room to give way, in which was a poor man in bed, but he received no damage.

At night, about a quarter paſt ten, a moſt uncommon change of weather happened. The evening, which till then had been a bright ſtar-light, and remarkably ſerene, varied on a ſudden to cloudy, and in an inſtant a moſt terrible burſt of wind was heard, attended with a furious ſtorm of hail from the north eaſt. During this hurricane, windows ſhook, houſes trembled, and a ſtrange ruſhing was perceived, as if in the inſide of the buildings with the perſons who inhabited them. Many, doubtleſs, were too much engaged to perceive it, but ſuch as did, particularly thoſe, who by their ſituation lay expoſed to the north and the north-eaſt, were not leſs ſurpriſed than alarmed. Happily the ſtorm did not laſt longer than two minutes, otherwiſe its effects muſt have been dreadful; and we did not hear of any damage being done, except the throwing down the gable end of one houſe in Weſtminſter, with ſome chimnies there and in other parts of the town.

2d. Great damages were done by the high wind and tide, in the river Thames, by goods being ſpoiled and damaged in cellars and warehouſes on both ſides of the river. Several boats were overſet, and twenty-ſeven perſons loſt their lives. The whole damage is eſtimated at 50,000 l.

Near Rochford Hundred, in Eſſex, two ſmall iſlands were entirely overflowed, the tide ran over the tops of the higheſt ſea walls, and the low grounds and marſhes ſuffered conſiderably.

At Eyemouth the ſea breached over many of the houſes, the high ſtreet was like a little ſea, and the conſternation of the inhabitants was inexpreſſible.

At Aldborough in Suffolk, the ſea flowed in at the windows of ſeveral houſes, bore down a few, and damaged many. The inhabitants were driven to the greateſt diſtreſs. A large breach was made in the chalk wall near Ipſwich, the marſhes laid under water, and damages done to a large amount.

5th. The navigation of the river Thames was ſtopt at Fulham-

ham-bridge by the ſeverity of the weather.

6th. Peter the wild man, who was taken in the Hartz Foreſt in Hanover when a youth, and ſent as a preſent to his late majeſty on his acceſſion to the throne, was brought from Cheſhunt in Hertfordſhire, (where he had been kept for many years at the expence of 30l.) to be ſeen by the royal family. He, like Shakeſpear's Caliban, can fetch wood and water, but can ſpeak no language articulately. The tale in the papers of his being a poor Hanoverian ideot, ſent here in a drunken frolic to be maintained, deſerves contempt.

Daniel Eckland, one of the rioters under ſentence of death at Reading, was executed without the leaſt tumult.

Three of the rioters condemned at Glouceſter were executed there; and the behaviour of one of the ſufferers was very affecting, and made a deep impreſſion on the ſpectators; of the other two little can be ſaid, one was ill, and the other very ignorant.

James Kitlety, broad-cloth weaver at Bradford, one of the ringleaders of the gang of rioters who robbed the warehouſes at Bradford of bacon, &c. and who received ſentence of death for that fact at Saliſbury aſſizes, was executed at Fiſherton gallows, amidſt a vaſt crowd of people who were very deeply affected at his unhappy fate.

14th. Samuel Orton, aged forty-three, in a mourning coach, William Thornhill, aged twenty-ſix, commonly called capt. Thornhill, in the firſt cart, for different forgeries; and William Walker and William Johnſton, for a footpad robbery, both ſeamen, and each under twenty-ſeven years old, in the ſecond cart, were conveyed from Newgate, and executed at Tyburn. Thornhill had ſerved ſome years in the army abroad; he had put off his trial ever ſince laſt June ſeſſion. When they came to the place of execution, they behaved devoutly and penitently. Mr. Orton took leave of ſome friends with great compoſure; but Thornhill, before the cart drew from under them, put up his cap five times, ſeeming very unwilling to leave this world. After having hung the uſual time, the bodies of Orton and Thornhill were taken away in hearſes: Johnſon's was put into a coffin, and Walker carried off by the ſailors, who attended there for that purpoſe. Mr. Orton was the firſt criminal (except Lord Ferrers) that has gone to Tyburn in a coach, ſince the unfortunate Mr. Baker, ſugar-refiner, who was executed many years ago. William Collins and John Winter were reſpited.

The great ducheſs of Tuſcany was happily delivered of a princeſs: The young princeſs was chriſtened the ſame evening by the names Maria, Tereſa, Giuſeppe, Charlotta, Giovanna. The ceremony was performed by the archbiſhop of Florence, in the preſence of the great duke.

17th. The Seſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when three received ſentence of death; one to be tranſported for 14 years, and nineteen for ſeven years; four were branded, and three ordered to be whipped.

Among thoſe who received ſentence of death, was John Williamſon, for the barbarous murder of his wife, by confining her in a

moſt cruel manner, and ſtarving her to death. The poor unhappy creature was a kind of idiot, who having a ſum of money left for her maintenance, Williamſon to poſſeſs himſelf of the money found means to marry her. They were firſt aſked in church, but her truſtee forbad the banns; the villain, however, procured a licence, and about 8 months ago they were married; ſince which, the uſage the unhappy creature received has been one continued ſcene of cruelty. He had driven a ſtrong ſtaple into the wall of a cloſet in the room where they lodged, and to this ſtaple he daily tied her with a rope which he drew round her middle, her hands being faſtened behind her with iron handcuffs, and the little ſuſtenance ſhe received was laid upon a ſhelf, juſt within the reach of her mouth, ſo that if ſhe dropt any part of it ſhe could not again recover it; and ſo very barbarous was this inhuman villain, that he often tied her up ſo tight that her toes only reached the ground, and if his daughter endeavoured to alleviate her miſery by ſetting a ſtool for her to ſtand on, he uſed to beat her unmercifully. In this manner ſhe languiſhed till ſhe became a frightful ſkeleton, and when ſhe was ſo far reduced that her ſtomach loathed food, he releaſed her, let looſe her hands, and ſet coarſe meat before her, and tempted her with tender words to eat, with a view to ſcreen himſelf from juſtice. In a day or two after this ſhe died a ſhocking ſight, no fleſh upon her bones, and the ſkin that encloſed them covered with vermin.

Joſeph Alexander, a negro, was found guilty of perjury, in ſwearing an affidavit in the commons, that Charlotte, daughter to Mr. Robert Neſbit, of Marybone, was aged twenty-one years and upwards, upon which he married her without her friends conſent: It appeared at that time ſhe was but ſixteen years and ten months of age. The above Alexander was a ſervant to the Duke de Nivernois, when that miniſter was lately in England; but ſtaying after his maſter, and getting an acquaintance with Mr. ——, a tradeſman at the weſt end of the town, he offered to teach his daughter French, which offer being accepted, he had admiſſion to Miſs ——, who fell in love with, and married him.

Came on to be tried at Hicks's hall, an indictment againſt Thomas Pratten, a bricklayer, in Ironmonger row, Old-ſtreet, for refuſing to take on him the office of conſtable, having been thereto elected by the ſelect veſtry and elders of St. Luke's pariſh. After a ſhort trial, and hearing the learned arguments of the council on each ſide, it plainly appeared to the ſatisfaction of the court and jury, that this cuſtom, for the ſelect veſtries to nominate conſtables, notwithſtanding it was ſupported by the evidence of a worthy magiſtrate, and ſome other antients in the pariſh (who all declared the cuſtom had ſubſiſted near ſixty years) was yet illegal and contrary to law; therefore the jury, without going out of court, honourably acquitted Mr. Pratten.—By this verdict it plainly appears that cuſtom, notwithſtanding its longevity, cannot be ſupported, when contrary to the known laws of the land.

A few days ſince, the great quantity of ice cut the cable of the Duke of Devonſhire, bound to the Straits,

Straits, and ſhe dropt upon her anchor, which made a hole in her bottom, and ſunk her. Her lading conſiſting of bale goods, to the amount of 20,000l. is conſiderably damaged.

The queſtion ſo long agitated by the ſociety of arts in relation to the land carriage fiſhery, was finally determined in favour of Mr. Blake.

The cold was ſo exceſſive as to freeze the Rhine, near Coblentz, a circumſtance which the annals of that city record as a memorable event, when in the year 1670 the waters of that river were frozen from the 11th to the 17th of January, and the artificers exerciſed their ſeveral employments upon it, as they now do.

At Copenhagen the cold is as intenſe as it was in 1740. The Sound is frozen over, and the communication open with Sweden on the ice.

At Berlin the cold is more ſevere than it was in the year 1740.

Many perſons, both rich and poor, have periſhed with the cold in Ruſſia and many more have been devoured by wolves from the foreſts.

What is more aſtoniſhing, in Italy the cold has been ſo ſevere as to drive the poor from their habitations in the country, to ſeek relief in the cities, ſeveral of whom are ſaid to have periſhed on the roads.

Friday a great number of larks were diſcovered in the hay carts in Smithfield, where they had taken refuge from the cold, by which they were ſo numbed that ſeveral of them were taken by the perſons preſent.

19th. John Williamſon, a journeyman ſhoemaker, was carried in a cart from Newgate to Moorfields, and there executed purſuant to his ſentence, for the murder of his wife, by ſtarving her to death; the gallows was erected in the center fronting Chiſwell-ſtreet. He was attended by two clergymen of the church of England, and a methodiſt teacher, who prayed by him for a full hour. It was with much difficulty that the clergymen could prevail upon him to acknowledge his crime; but at laſt, juſt before the cart drew off, one of the clergymen informed the people, that he had confeſſed the murder; and further, that his diſorderly life had been a principal means of bringing him into that unfortunate ſituation, and hoped the people would pray for his ſoul. He was a tall man, about forty-ſix years of age. It is ſuppoſed there were 80,000 perſons preſent, a great number of whom were women. It was with difficulty that the reſentment of the populace was reſtrained; for they were prepoſſeſſed that the puniſhment of hanging was too mild for ſo heinous a crime. He ſeemed apprehenſive of being torn in pieces, and haſtened the executioner to perform his office.

A great flock of larks ſettled in the market-place at Horſham in Suſſex, ſo froſt-ſtarved, that many of them were taken up by hand.

The fall of ſnow has been ſo great in South Wales, that all communication there, except by the great poſt roads, was cut off. Between the mountains the ſnow is ſuppoſed to be 40 fathom deep.

Her majeſty's birth-day was celebrated at court with great ſplendor. The manufactures of Great Britain never appeared to more advantage, the whole court being dreſſed in ſuits entirely Britiſh.

The poſt-boy who carried the mail from Bradford to Rochdale, was with his horſe frozen to death.

A ſmall cottage in Wales was buried in the ſnow, and an old couple periſhed before they were relieved.

From the 3d to the 14th inſtant it froze inceſſantly at Paris. The degree of cold was very accurately obſerved at the Royal College by four well regulated thermometers, and has been found to exceed that in 1740 by 3 degrees, and but 2 degrees and a half ſhort of that of 1709.

On Monday evening a poor woman with a little boy in her hand, and another on her back, travelling from Saliſbury to Blandford, and miſtaking her way in the heavineſs of the ſnow, as is ſuppoſed, periſhed with her two miſerable infants, and was diſcovered by a ſhepherd's dog, covered over with ſnow very early the next morning. She had three farthings in her pocket, a bit of bread and cheeſe, and a ruſty thimble.

20th. This day the king of Naples, who has attained his majority, made his public entry, and went to the metropolitan church, where Te Deum was ſung. When his majeſty was returned to his palace, he gave a private audience to the prince de St. Nicanſtre, his late tutor, who gave up his accounts.

At half after nine in the morning an earthquake was felt at Lipſtadt, the direction of which was from weſt to eaſt, and the ſhock was ſo violent that the windows were broke, the doors burſt open, and the ice of the Lippe broken by it in ſeveral places. Many people were terrified, and ran into the open places; but as the ſhock laſted only a few ſeconds, none of the buildings were thrown down.

Two ſlight ſhocks of an earthquake were felt at Parma in Italy, one at half paſt 8 in the morning; the other at 3 quarters after nine. At Piſa ſome chimneys were thrown down by the violence of theſe ſhocks, and the people thought the end of the world was come.

22d. A ſlight ſhock of an earthquake was felt at Hanover, but no other damage enſued but that of throwing the inhabitants into conſternation.

Three ſucceſſive ſhocks of an earthquake were felt at Genoa, perhaps the ſame as before, the dates in Italy being ſomewhat confuſed.

23d. Was held a court of common-council, when it was unanimouſly reſolved upon the motion of Mr. Deputy Roſſeter, that on account of the diſtreſſes of the poor in this inclement ſeaſon, one thouſand pounds ſhould be ſubſcribed out of the chamber of the city; and that a ſubſcription book ſhould be opened in the chamberlain's office for the donations of all well diſpoſed perſons; which money is to be appropriated to the relief of ſuch poor perſons inhabiting within the city and liberties as do not receive alms of the pariſh; and a committee was appointed, conſiſting of the lord mayor, and all the aldermen, and fifty-two commoners, who immediately withdrew, and began a ſubſcription among themſelves; to which the lord mayor gave one hundred pounds, and the reſt of the gentlemen very liberally.

At this court Mr. Deputy Paterſon preſented a plan for raiſing the

ſum

ſum of 282,000l. for the purpoſe of paying the artificers of London-bridge, completing the new bridge, and redeeming the toll thereon; embanking the river Thames between Paul's wharf and Milford-lane; repairing the Royal Exchange, and rebuilding the gaol of Newgate; and a committee was appointed, to whom the ſaid plan was referred; whereupon the court upon the motion of Mr. Deputy Roſſeter voted their thanks to deputy John Paterſon, Eſq; for his conſtant and zealous attention to promote the convenience, ornament and emolument of the city, and in particular, that, though at this time engaged in the public ſervice as chairman of the committee of ways and means to the honourable houſe of commons, yet with great labour and expence he has calculated and preſented to the court, and, at his own expence, diſtributed to every member of the ſame, a plan of ſo much utility to this city.

The following is an account of the toll taken at Blackfryers-bridge for four weeks.

19	Nov.	15	2	8½		
20	——	12	9	9½		
21	——	13	16	7½		
22	——	11	7	4		
23	Sunday	43	11	2		
24	——	10	2	2		
25	——	6	13	8½		
	First Week				113	3 6
26	——	6	14	6½		
27	——	8	3	3		
28	——	7	1	11		
29	——	5	7	11½		
30	Sunday	31	2	7		
1	Dec.	8	14	4½		
2	——	5	6	3½		
	Second Week				73	10 11
3	——	6	13	6½		
4	——	5	7	0½		
5	——	5	13	2		
6	——	5	10	9½		
7	Sunday	15	4	8		
8	——	7	7	6½		
9	——	6	4	3		
	Third Week				52	2 0
10	——	5	11	1½		
11	——	4	19	6½		
12	——	5	2	7		
13	——	4	11	3½		
14	Sunday	21	4	1		
15	——	5	14	9		
16	——	6	11	1½		
	Fourth Week				53	15 3
					292	11 8

One Patrick Redmond having been condemned, at Corke in Ireland, to be hanged for a ſtreet robbery, he was accordingly executed, and hung upwards of 28 minutes, when the mob carried off the body to a place appointed, where he was, after five or ſix hours, actually recovered by a ſurgeon, who made the inciſion in his wind-pipe called *bronchotomy*, which produced the deſired effect. The poor fellow has ſince received his pardon, and a genteel collection has been made for him.

In conſequence of the thaw, which began on Saturday at Newcaſtle, the ice broke this day upon the Tyne with a prodigious crack, and a freſh tide coming down, carried it to ſea with very little damage.

25th. This morning between two and three o'clock, a fire broke out at a baker's in the Strand, oppoſite Hungerford market, which in a ſhort time entirely conſumed the ſame, and the bellows-maker's. The flames were

ſo rapid, that the inhabitants could not ſave any of their effects. The apprentice and ſervant maid periſhed in the flames, as likewiſe a young woman big with child: A moſt promiſing youth, about ſixteen years of age, eldeſt ſon of Mr. Wood, ſtaymaker in the Strand, apprentice to a jeweller who lodged in the ſaid houſe, in order to avoid being burnt, jumped out of a two pair of ſtairs window into the ſtreet, by which means his ſkull was fractured, and his arm, two of his ribs, and his back, broke; of which he expired in great agonies, yeſterday morning. A man who lived in Moor's yard, near St. Martin's-lane, was killed by the fall of a large piece of timber; ſo that ſix lives were loſt. A chairman had his arm broke; and one Mr. Peele, a baker, who had lately let his ſhop to Mr. Dixon, endeavouring to get out of the two pair of ſtairs window backwards, by means of a ſpout, the ſame gave way, when he fell to the bottom of the area, but pitching on his feet, he had providentially no limbs broke, and is in a fair way to do well, though terribly bruiſed.

There has been received of ſheriffs fines for building Blackfriers bridge, ſince the firſt of June 1758, to the preſent time, the ſum of 16,200l.

On Saturday the 17th of December laſt, a conſiderable ſhock of an earthquake was felt at New-Hampſhire, in North America, about 48 minutes after ſix in the evening, attended with a rumbling noiſe, though the evening was ſerene and clear.

On the 22d and 23d of October laſt, a violent hurricane did conſiderable damage in the harbour of Penſacola. The Spaniſh flota from Vera Cruz, for the Havannah and Old Spain, conſiſting of five large regiſter ſhips, richly laden, were driven aſhore in the Bay of St. Bernard, W. S. W. of Penſacola.

The committee for relieving the diſtreſſes of the poor of London met, and ordered the ſum of 1315l. to be diſtributed as an immediate relief to the neceſſitous. 29th.

More than 300 labourers were employed by the commiſſioners of the new pavement in clearing the ſtreets of Weſtminſter of ſnow and ice.

An action brought againſt an eminent coal-merchant in the city for ſelling ſhort meaſure, was this day tried, and a verdict of 50l. damages were given againſt him, with coſts of ſuit. It appeared that ten chaldrons wanted 21 buſhels.

A lady releaſed from the Marſhalſea priſon one and twenty debtors, whoſe debts were under 40s. each, and gave each a ſhilling at their departure.

At Ancona, in Italy, famine rages to that degree, that the poor live upon acorns, and many periſh for want of that ſupply.

A Corſican Courier, with diſpatches to Lord Mariſchal of Scotland, and Sir Andrew Mitchell, was ſtopt at Hamburgh on the firſt inſtant in his way to Berlin, and paſſed a ſevere examination; he appeared, however, to be a perſon of more diſtinction than he choſe to own, and was eſcorted in his way by a party of the military.

Andrew Stone, Eſq; her majeſty's treaſurer and receiver general, has paid to Robert Dingley, Eſq; treaſurer to the Magdalen charity, 300l.

300l. as her majeſty's royal gift and bounty, towards building a new Magdalen-houſe.

A few days ago one Mr. Burnett, ſchoolmaſter of Chipſtead in Surry, was found dead on Banſtead Downs, ſuppoſed to have loſt his way in the evening, and periſhed in the ſnow.

A woman in Biſhop-Wearmouth, aged about 80, has lately had the ſmall-pox, and is recovered. What is very extraordinary, this poor woman has had ſeveral children, and conſtantly nurſed and laid with them when they were in the ſame diſorder.

The empreſs queen has publiſhed an edict, allowing the ſoldiers in her army to marry; and commanding the civil magiſtrates, who formerly had orders to prevent ſuch marriages, to facilitate and encourage them for the future.

Private letters from Algiers inform us, that the Dey has told the Seraſkier, who came there to demand 20 years arrears of tribute due to the Porte, "That he was firmly reſolved not only to refuſe paying the ſaid arrears, but alſo any tribute for the future: that the ſtate of Algiers was abſolutely free and independent of the Porte: that it ſtood in no need of the Porte's protection; and that he, the Seraſkier, might return to Conſtantinople with that anſwer."

They write from Madrid, that the king, who hath nothing more at heart than the rendering his ſtates flouriſhing, earneſtly endeavours to excite therein a love for the ſciences and the fine arts. As the library of the Eſcurial doubtleſs contains an ineſtimable treaſure in manuſcripts, a great number of which has never yet been publiſhed, his majeſty has ordered accurate catalogues of them to be prepared for the preſs. An impreſſion of the firſt volume of the catalogue of Arabic manuſcripts is already finiſhed, and another will be publiſhed ſoon, together with a catalogue of thoſe in Greek and Latin.

They write from Stockholm, that the grand entertainment which the Ruſſian miniſter gave in honour of the Prince Royal's marriage, was executed in the moſt ſplendid manner. It began by a ſupper to 260 perſons, who were ſerved with the greateſt order imaginable: As ſoon as they roſe from table, they were ſurprized by a very fine firework placed upon an iſland juſt oppoſite to his houſe, which was illuminated with many thouſand lamps down to the edge of the water; and the whole was concluded with a ball, which laſted till ſix o'clock in the evening.

They write from Liſbon, that the fleet from the bay of All-Saints, which has been long expected, is at length arrived in the Tagus. This fleet was eſcorted by two men of war, one of which had on board the Count d'Ega, late viceroy of of Goa; who, as ſoon as the ſhip caſt anchor before the caſtle of Belem, was arreſted by a corregidor, in conſequence of orders from the king. All this nobleman's effects, which are very conſiderable, are ſequeſtrated; a ring was even taken from his finger, as well as other jewels which he had in his cloaths. The next day he was conducted to priſon, where he is cloſely guarded. He is ſaid to be accuſed of great violences and extortions.

They had a violent ſhock of an earthquake at the Grenades in the

latter end of October, which has done great damage, particularly to ſeveral ſugar-works. The hills are in ſeveral places thrown down, ſo that it is impoſſible to ride round the iſland on horſeback. We have alſo ſhocking accounts from Curaſſoa, and the Spaniſh Main, of the hills being ſhook into the vallies.

And at St. Euſtatia, they had a moſt terrible hurricane, accompanied with an earthquake. The ſhips in the port, which had not time to weigh anchor to get out to ſea, were almoſt all loſt: great ravages are made in the interior parts of the iſland; ſeveral houſes are thrown down, trees torn up by the roots, and moſt part of the harveſt broke down.

The ſame ingenious artiſt who laſt year made a grand diadem that was ſent to Bengal, has ſince finiſhed a rich ſcimitar, or ſabre, deſigned, it is ſaid, to be preſented by the governor and council of Madraſs, in the name of the Eaſt India company, to the Nabob of Arcot. The hilt, which is moſt curiouſly worked, weighs near a pound of ſolid gold. The workmanſhip of the goldſmith, though rich and elegant, is overpowered by that of the jeweller, from the number of large diamonds, rubies, and emeralds, that overſpread it, in various fine and curious devices: On one ſide repreſenting trophies of war in the European, and on the other ſide in the Aſiatic taſte, compoſed of large ſtones properly adapted; between the trophies twines a wreath of palm and laurel interwoven, as emblems of victory and peace, intermixing agreeably with leaves, branches, flowers, and other ornaments, copied from nature; the colours of the different jewels forming an agreeable variety, and moſt ſtriking appearance. At the top is a helmet, made of a large emerald; the ornaments of it of the fineſt diamonds, and the feather at the top is of rubies fixed to the emerald, making an agreeable termination; under it a half-moon, or creſcent, of yellowiſh diamonds. The blade, which is of the fineſt ſteel, is deeply encruſted, from top to bottom, with flowers and branches in the moſaic taſte. The ſcabbard, which is of crimſon velvet, is richly ornamented with jewels, to correſpond with the reſt, to which is fixed rings of gold, to receive other ornaments, by which it hangs to a rich belt. The whole is ſaid to be worth 3000 l.

The froſt which ſet in at the latter end of December, continued to increaſe, and was very intenſe all the preſent month, except the 16th, 17th, and 18th days, when there was an appearance of its breaking; but on the 19th it again appeared with increaſed rigour, and ſo continued till the 22d, when a kindly thaw relieved the direful apprehenſions of the public. During its continuance the diſtreſſes of the poor in town and country were truly pitiable, though the generous hand of relief was held forth by numbers of the nobility, gentry, clergy, and other worthy perſons and corporations. Fuel and every neceſſary of life were remarkably dear; and bread advanced to 8½d. the quartern loaf, as the meal barges could not bring their lading down the river, which was frozen ſo hard as to ſtop the navigation both above and below bridge; many perſons retarded or jammed in by the ice periſhed with cold, in boats

boats or other craft, and the wherries could not ply as uſual. In the cities of London, Weſtminſter, and their ſuburbs, many melancholy accidents happened, ſuch as numbers periſhing with cold, or breaking limbs by the ſlipperineſs of the ſtreets; and the draught cattle could ſcarcely keep their feet. Many ſuch accidents alſo happened to thoſe who were purſuing the diverſion of ſkaiting on the ice.

In the country the ſnow lay ſo deep, and ſo filled up the roads, hollows, and vallies, that many people loſt their lives therein, or their ways, and died of ſevere cold. Sheep and cattle periſhed in conſiderable numbers, the roads were almoſt impaſſable, and the ſtages and mails with difficulty and danger, and great loſs of time, performed their journies.

The month was alſo remarkable for very tempeſtuous weather at ſea, by which great numbers of veſſels were wrecked on our own and the neighbouring coaſts, and ſeveral of their crews periſhed. On the ſecond inſtant great damage was ſuſtained by the ſhipping and inhabitants, from a ſtorm and flood, at Berwick, Plymouth, Goſwick, and Sunderland. The ſame misfortunes were felt at Whitby, Blyth, Hartley-pans, Stockton, Seaton, Staiths, Sandſend, Eaſtrow, and Saltborn. At Shotley, in Suffolk, marches and banks were laid under water, and at Manningtree, in Eſſex, ſixty ſheep were drowned: And the neighbourhood of Orford in Suffolk, ſuffered ſtill more.

The wife of Mr. Curtis of Horſham, aged 65 years, was delivered of male twins.

Died lately at Knightſbridge in Devon, one George Gibbons, aged 104 years.

John King, at Noke in Cambridgeſhire, aged 130.

Mrs. Taite, in Camberwell, aged 102.

Jane Ireton, in St. Andrew's workhouſe, aged 103.

Mary Wiggins, at Sherborne in Oxfordſhire, aged 109.

Mary Holt, of Wem in Shropſhire, aged 108.

FEBRUARY.

A cauſe came on before the court of King's Bench, wherein ſerjeant Burland was plaintiff, and the corporation of Wells defendants, reſpecting the legality of removing the former from the office of recorder, which he had enjoyed with great reputation for many years; when a peremptory mandamus was ordered to be made out for reſtoring the ſaid ſerjeant Burland to his former office. 2d.

An inqueſt was held on the bodies of two of Mr. Tombs's daughters, of Cotes, near Cirenceſter, one of the age of 24, the other of 8 years, who, on the day before, were, together with a maid-ſervant, aged 22, poiſoned by taking, for a cutaneous eruption, a doſe of arſenick, which was ſold to Mrs. Tombs for cream of tartar, by an ignorant quack, ſome months ago. They were ſoon after taking it, ſeized with all the dire ſymptoms which uſually attend the internal uſe of that curſed drug; and after enduring inexpreſſible torture for near 8 hours, they all three miſerably expired. Their other daughter was to have taken the ſame

medicine, but ſhe deſired to poſtpone it till the next day, that ſhe might go to church; and thus ſhe eſcaped the fate of her ſiſters.—This is inſerted as a caution not to purchaſe drugs of ignorant quacks, who, in many inſtances where there is a reſemblance, don't know how to diſtinguiſh one drug from another.

A moſt remarkable accident and eſcape happened to a labourer at Couper of Fife, in Scotland, where a bucket having fallen into a well, about 30 feet deep, the labourer was ſent down to bring it up, but unfortunately the ſteining fell in upon him, and incloſed him at the bottom, without any hope of releaſe. Some workmen were however employed to clear the rubbiſh, who continued their labour till dark, and next morning reſumed it. About noon one of them thought he heard a voice, on which the hands were doubled, and all worked with redoubled vigour for ſeveral hours, when, to their great aſtoniſhment, they found the man alive, without a bone broken, after being 39 hours in that ſituation.

His majeſty's orders, containing ſome new regulations for the army in Ireland, were received in that kingdom. By theſe regulations each troop of dragoons is to have trumpets; croſs-belts for all the private men; no officer to wear gold or ſilver lace on his cloaths; nor to ſell out if he did not purchaſe; nor then, but to an officer on half-pay.

A gentleman paſſing through Chancery Lane, obſerved a man lying on the ground, who had juſt fallen out of a window, and near expiring. Upon enquiry at the houſe before which he lay, it appeared that perſons were kept there who had enliſted into the Eaſt-India company's ſervice; and the maſter of the houſe being carried before the ſitting alderman, brought ſeveral of the recruits with him, who depoſed that the man threw himſelf out of the window. This is one of the houſes called lock-up houſes.

A man who had been out in the country to watch a houſe, in returning home, attempted to diſcharge his gun in the air, but it not going off, he put it over his arm to examine the touch-hole, when it went off, and ſhot another man who was paſſing on the oppoſite ſide of the way; on hearing the man cry out, the poor fellow ran to his maſter, told him what had happened, and offered to ſurrender himſelf; but the maſter adviſed him to be ſecret till the man recovered or died; ſince which the poor man is dead in the hoſpital. 7th.

A large houſe adjoining to the gateway of the Saracen's-head inn, on Snow-hill, ſuddenly fell to the ground, together with that part of the houſe of Meſſ. Hayes and Warwick which went over the gateway. The houſe was only occupied by the family of Mr. Dodd. who exhibits the lecture on hearts at Exeter 'Change, on the firſt floor, and that of Mr. Jarvis, a caſe-maker, in the three pair of ſtairs room forward. Mr. Dodd's family happily eſcaped unhurt; but Mrs. Jarvis, and one of her children, periſhed in the ruins.

The floods are every where out; but the moſt melancholy effects of theſe inundations are almoſt always felt in the fen countries

tries, where a breach in the banks generally lays whole diſtricts under-water; by a breach in Deeping bank, ſeveral thouſand acres are now under water; and by the north-bank of the river Glen giving way, the north fens are overflowed, by which the inhabitants of the villages between Peterborough and Lincoln, are reduced to the moſt deplorable circumſtances; their cattle carried away, and their houſes laid three or four feet under water; many other places have ſhared the ſame fate; and, in ſhort, their conſternation and diſtreſs is ſuch as none can conceive, but thoſe who have been in the like ſituations.

In many parts of Scotland, the inundations, on the breaking up of the ſnow, did incredible damage; at Lachmaben, the waters of Annan came down with ſuch rapidity, as to take houſes, cattle, corn, and every thing along with them.

In Ireland the Liffey did the ſame; and in Wales, no man living ever ſaw ſuch floods.—It is amazing, with what ſolemnity the Thames and Severn riſe and fall on theſe occaſions, flowing with an enlarged current and a quicker motion, but neither with ſo much rapidity as to ſurprize cattle, nor with ſo much encreaſed depth, as to overflow houſes: The floods on theſe two rivers, inſtead of a calamity, are, generally ſpeaking, a common benefit, enriching the paſtures on their banks, aud fertilizing the countries thro' which they paſs.

A ſchooner and three open boats, taken by his Majeſty's armed cutters in the channel, and condemned for ſmuggling, were burnt at Torbay.

A man who lodged in Earl-ſtreet, Seven Dials, went home in expectation of having his dinner ready, but found his wife on the bed intoxicated with liquor; on which he placed a train of gunpowder, with the diabolical reſolution to blow her up, but in ſetting fire to the ſame he was ſo terribly burnt that he was carried to the hoſpital with little hopes of recovery. The woman eſcaped unhurt.

A poor old man and his wife, who lived near Chriſt-church, Surry, and uſed to ſell greens about the ſtreets till the late ſevere froſt, were obliged to live upon their ſmall capital till it was exhauſted, and were then forced to ſell their bed, &c. for ſupport, which laſted but a little time; after which being miſſing ſome days, the neighbours, who reſpected them for their former induſtry, went to enquire after their health; when they found the old woman ſtretched out upon the floor, juſt expired for want of common neceſſaries, and her huſband almoſt dead, who was carried to the workhouſe without hope of recovery.—He has ſince, however, got better, and a collection has been made for him.

A farmer near Innerdale going after ſome ſheep that were miſſing during the ſnow, took with him a bottle of rum and a ſmall glaſs; when he found them, ſome ſeemed juſt dying with the cold, to every one of which he gave a little of the rum, mixed with water, which inſtantly revived them. To thoſe that appeared leaſt affected, he gave

gave none. What is remarkable, he got all that had taken the rum, ſafe home, but ſome of the reſt died by the way.

Laſt week Mr. Berrow of the Grange, ſent his man to Chepſtow, with ſeveral horſes loaded with meal. Chepſtow bridge is repairing and near compleated. The man when he came to the bridge, led the firſt horſe as far as he apprehended there was danger, and then left him to fetch the others, ſuppoſing he would go forwards; but the horſe turning round ſhort before he had got within the part that was railed, trode on the end of a looſe plank which tilted up, and he fell into the river. It was then low water, and the height from the water between 50 and 60 feet. About 130 yards below the bridge, the horſe roſe, having broken the girths of the pad, and, cleared from his load, ſwam to the ſhore without the leaſt hurt.

On the 19th ult. came on at the lying-in hoſpital, Dublin, a moſt remarkable trial, grounded on a ſuggeſtion made by George Rochfort, Eſq; of the idiotcy of Nicholas Hume, earl of Ely. The examination of witneſſes employed five days; and on Saturday the 24th, the earl of Ely was himſelf examined by the commiſſioners and jurors, in the preſence of the ſaid George Rochfort, and of two council on the part of the Earl; and after an examination of three quarters of an hour and upwards, the jurors without debate returned their verdict, That Nicholas Hume, Earl of Ely, is not an idiot, or of unſound mind. The commiſſioners unanimouſly approved the verdict, and have returned the inquiſition into the high court of chancery.

They write from Cologne, that the waters of the Rhine having been very low for ſome time, they had diſcovered oppoſite that city the foundations of a bridge, and near the three kings gate a kind of guard-houſe: ſuppoſed to be two antient monuments of the Romans.

14th. Fourteen tranſports from Durham, Newcaſtle, and Morpeth, were put on board the Jenny, Capt. Blagdon, bound for Virginia; at which time ten young artificers ſhipped themſelves for America. One of the indented ſervants, we hear, who formerly belonged to Newcaſtle, has enliſted into 46 different regiments, been whipped out of 19, ſentenced to be ſhot ſix times, but reprieved, confined in 73 different gaols, appeared under the character of quack doctor in ſeven kingdoms, and now is only in the 32nd year of his age.

Five of the more reſolute priſoners in Saliſbury gaol (among whom were White and Wheeler, two of the rioters) attempted to break out, threatening to murder the keeper, and ſet the priſon on fire. They tore up ſeveral of the planks of the floor, and threw brickbats with great violence at their oppoſers, and continued their noiſe the whole night, and were ſo bold and daring the next morning, that the keeper was obliged to apply to the commanding officer for a party of ſoldiers to aſſiſt in laying them in irons, or murder, in all probability, would have enſued.

Was committed to Cheſter caſtle the

the ſervant maid of Mr. Torkington of Overton-green, charged with poiſoning two of his children, by mixing arſenick in ſome gruel, and endangering the life of Mrs, Torkington; and alſo one Elizabeth Hawkins of Stockport, fortune-teller, for being an acceſſary in the ſaid murders.

A jeweller took ſome girls, and their waiting-maid, in a hackney-coach to a coffee-houſe in Chelſea; when they came out to return home, the coachman was gone to a public-houſe; but it then raining, the waiter let the company into the coach, and called out for the driver, who not hearing immediately, the horſes moved on, and one of them being blind, turned towards the Thames, into which they dragged the coach, and the water being very high, it was with the utmoſt difficulty that the lives of the ladies and maid were ſaved; but the gentleman being ſtunned by a blow on his temple, was drowned.

On Thurſday died (as was ſuppoſed) Mrs. Margaret Carpenter, journey-woman to Mr. Smith, livery lace-maker in Little Queen-ſtreet, Lincoln's-inn-fields; and on Friday ſhe was properly laid out, in order to be interred to-morrow; when on Friday night, to the aſtoniſhment and terror of the whole family, ſhe came down ſtairs ſtark naked, having only been in a trance; as ſoon as the ſurprize was over, they put her into a warm bed, and gave her comfortable things for her refreſhment; ſhe ſaid ſhe was bitter cold; but her ſituation ſo ſhocked her, that ſhe did not ſurvive above a day or two.

Thomas Davers, (ſuppoſed to be nearly related to the late Admiral Davers) who built, at a vaſt expence, a little fort on the river Thames, near Blackwall, known by the name of Davers's folly, after paſſing thro' a ſeries of misfortunes, chiefly owing to an unhappy turn of mind, put an end to his miſerable life: ſome few hours before his death, he was ſeen to write the following card: "Deſcended from an ancient and honourable family, I have, for fifteen years paſt, ſuffered more indigence than ever gentleman before ſubmitted to: neglected by my acquaintance, traduced by my enemies, and inſulted by the vulgar, I am ſo reduced, worn down, and tired, that I have nothing left but that laſting repoſe, the joint and dernier inheritance of all."

Of laudanum an ample doſe,
Muſt all my preſent ills compoſe:
But the beſt laudanum of all
I want (not reſolution) but a ball.

N. B. Advertiſe this. T. D.

They write from Newcaſtle, that at Harrington near Lambton, the wife of one Wilſon, as he was ſleeping by the fire-ſide, came behind him with an ax, and ſtruck him on one ſide of his neck, with all her force, and cut through the gullet; upon which he ſtarted up with all the horror of a dying perſon; but ſhe repeated the blow, and clove him on one ſide of his head, which brought him to the ground, and he expired directly. She is committed to Durham gaol, but is ſaid to be out of her reaſon.

Jo. Story, a blackſmith at Belford, having courted the daughter of

of Mrs. Eleanor Elliot, widow, near Haggerſton, going one day to her houſe to aſk for his ſweetheart, found none but the old woman, who told him her daughter was not at home, but aſked him why he courted her daughter, who could not bring him above 20l. and if he would pleaſe her, ſhe would help him to one of 500l. On which he replied, he would ever with gratitude acknowledge the favour. Then I am the perſon, (ſays ſhe,) if you'll accept of the offer: on which a bargain was ſtruck immediately, and on Tueſday ſe'nnight they were married at Kilo. The bridegroom is only 18 years of age, and the bride 64.

Came on before Dr. Hay, 16th. Dean of the Arches court of Canterbury, at Doctors-commons, a remarkable cauſe between a gentleman of fortune and a young lady to whom he was ſome time ſince married in a private houſe, or room, in Scotland. The queſtion before the court, and upon which the cauſe turned, was this: Whether the marriage in Scotland (as the young lady was then under age) was binding on the gentleman, or not? when, after many learned arguments by the civilians on both ſides, the judge was clearly of opinion that the marriage was good in law, and pronounced accordingly, That marriages celebrated in Scotland do not come within the act of parliament in 1754, to prevent clandeſtine marriages, — It is remarkable this is the firſt cauſe of this nature tried ſince the act took place, and it is ſaid is to be re-heard before the Court of Delegates.

Two ladies (ſiſters to the gentleman who was lately drowned at Chelſea in a coach) coming to town from Bath, were robbed on Hounſlow heath by a ſingle highwayman — What is remarkable, the ladies met the robber about noon the ſame day upon Ludgate-hill, who appeared much confounded; but the ladies let him paſs, being ſo much affected that they had not power to call for aſſiſtance to take him.

A gold medal was preſented to Mr. Doſſie, by the ſociety, for his eminent ſervices in communicating the proceſſes of making pot-aſh and barilla in America, by which theſe articles are now become eſtabliſhed articles of commerce in that country. He has alſo given, in writing, an ingenious and uſeful account of pot-aſh, with inſtructions for judging of its comparative value, and diſcovering the ſophiſtications of it, in order that the ſame may be printed.

Articles of the peace were exhibited at Hicks's-hall, by a noble Lord, againſt a woman, for threatening to ſtab his lordſhip, and ſet fire to his houſe; when the court ordered her to find ſecurity, or be committed. She found ſecurity.

A perſon, dreſſed like a gentleman, went to a regiſter office, and hired a young man for his ſervant, giving him a direction to come to his lodgings in Weſtminſter the ſame evening: but the office-keeper having a ſuſpicion of the perſon, attended the young fellow to the place, and found it to be a lock-up houſe for recruits; and that the pretended gentleman was no other than a crimp.

The

The seſſions ended at the
20th. Old Bailey, when one for horſe-ſtealing and two for highway robberies (one of whom was a negro) were capitally convicted. Thirty-three to be tranſported for ſeven years, four to be whipt, and three were branded.

This day his Majeſty went
21ſt. to the houſe of Peers, with the uſual ſtate, and gave the royal aſſent to—The bill to puniſh mutiny and deſertion.—The bill to continue, for a further limited time, the free importation of wheat and wheat-meal, from any part of Europe, and to diſcontinue the duties payable on the importation on barley-meal and pulſe.—The bill to diſcontinue the duties on the importation of tallow, hog's-lard, and greaſe.—The bill to diſſolve the marriage of John Stott, Eſq; from Ann his wife, to enable him to marry again, and for other purpoſes.—The bill to build a new bridge over the Thames, from Swynford in Oxfordſhire, to the oppoſite ſhore.—And alſo to ſeveral road, incloſure, and naturalization bills.

A remarkable experiment in huſbandry was tried laſt ſpring, by one Mr. Carpenter of Cheltenham. In the beginning of March he ſowed about ſix acres with wheat, which turned out an exceeding good crop, and was fit to reap within nine days of that ſowed at the uſual time. The land was a light ſandy ſoil, and had been laid down with turneps, which were fed off with ſheep during the winter.

At a committee in St.
24th Bride's veſtry, an inhabitant who had ſometime before mentioned to one of the churchwardens, ſome ſuſpicion he had relative to the bringing corpſes late at night to their burying-ground on the ſide of the Fleet-market, came and declared to the gentlemen preſent, that he ſaw their grave-digger laſt Michaelmas day, at a little after 11 at night, with four bearers, bring down by the ſide of the Fleet market, a ſhell or coffin covered over with a black cloth, which ſomewhat ſurpriſed him; but he and his man followed, and preſently coming to the burying-ground door, the leader gave two knocks, on which a woman within ſide, aſked who was there? One knock more was repeated; on which the door was immediately opened, and the contents left in the paſſage. On this extraordinary information they ſent for the grave-digger, and on his appearing, he was queſtioned concerning the corpſe that was brought at 11 at night ſome time ago; he flatly denied being concerned in bringing any ſo late at any time; but after ſome other queſtions, he owned bringing one a little after nine, from the lock-up-houſe in the Butcher-row; and another time, one from a houſe of the ſame caſt in Chancery-lane. Being aſked whom he had orders from, he named a perſon, who was ſent for; but he poſitively denied giving any ſuch orders. He afterwards named another, who was the undertaker, and he being ſent for, acknowledged that he gave ſuch orders, but could not recollect the time; but after going home to peruſe his books, found one to be on Dec. 6, 1765. and another on Sept. 29, 1766, from the above places, by the deſire of Capt. ——, but not at the time

time of night above-mentioned; he alſo declared he paid the pariſh dues demanded, and alſo the bearers for their trouble; that he likewiſe brought a proper certificate and oath. On referring to the pariſh regiſter of the above dates, there was found one Evans, aged 18, was buried Dec. 7, 1765, and one Hughes, (a pauper of the pariſh) Sept. 30, 1766; but neither the certificates nor affidavits were produced at that time; the perſon in whoſe cuſtody thoſe paupers were kept, declared he took very little care of them after the corpſes were buried. On examining one of the bearers who brought the corpſe on Sept. 29, he declared, that he and the reſt went up into a garret or cockloft, in the lock-up-houſe in the butcher-row, where the tiling and ceiling were open; there they found a man lying on the boards naked, only an old blanket flung over him; that he himſelf laid hold of him to lift him into the ſhell, and that the fleſh of his buttocks ſtuck to the boards, ſo that part thereof was left behind; and that they brought him from the above houſe about half an hour after 10, which corroborates the declaration of the gentleman who acquainted the churchwardens with theſe proceedings. The grave-digger, and three of the bearers, have been turned out of their employments.

A woman bought an old chair at a broker's and upon ripping the top off to have it new covered, found concealed in one corner, 21 guineas, all Q. Anne's coin, and a bank note, value 200 l. both tied up in a canvaſs bag; ſhe gave for the chair 18 d, She has a large family to maintain.

The Right Hon. Lord Baltimore was unanimouſly elected a fellow of the royal ſociety.

An officer of the cuſtoms made a ſeizure of near four hundred pounds worth of fine Flanders lace, artfully concealed in the hollow of a ſhip's buoy on board a French trader lying off Irongate.

By a letter from the chief mate of the Plaſſy Eaſt India country trading ſhip, to his brother, there is a confirmation of the treacherous character of the Chineſe very ſtrikingly ſet forth; for the Plaſſy having ſold a quantity of opium to a Chineſe junk of great burthen in the Malaccas, the letter writer was decoyed on board, in order to receive the money for it: and being entertained in the moſt courteous manner, till he was off his guard, he was all at once ſurpriſed by a gun from the Plaſſy, and roſe in haſte to ſee what was the matter, but was inſtantly ſeized by ſix men, from whom he luckily diſengaged himſelf, by cutting down the moſt reſolute of them, gaining the quarter deck, though not without being deſperately wounded, and then jumping into his own boat, at which the junk fired, with no other effect, however but that of frightening his people, ſome of whom jumped overboard. When he reached the Plaſſy, he found that ſhe too had been in the poſſeſſion of the Chineſe, and had freed herſelf by a moſt deſperate and bloody effort, in which the captain loſt his life, and nine of the Europeans on board were wounded.

wounded. In this lamentable ſituation, the Plaſſy was obliged to ſet ſail, without the money for the goods ſold.

It appears from the report lately delivered to the court of common-council of London, by the committee appointed in 1756, to enquire into the right of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, to the hoſpitals of St. Bartholomew, Chriſt, St. Thomas, Bridewell, and Bethlem; and whether the right has, in any inſtance, been given up or taken away:

"That by three authentic inſtruments, the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, are the grantees of the hoſpitals and their revenues, and have the ſole power of governing them.

That the right has never been given up or taken away, except during the troubles, and while the judgment upon the information in quo-warranto remained in force.

That the preſent governors act only by an authority referrable to, and derived from the right of the city. But,

That though the common council, as repreſenting the city, might have exerciſed the right of government at firſt; yet the lord mayor and aldermen very ſoon took upon them the ſole management of the charities.

That the word commonalty ſeems in ſome records to ſignify not the court of common council, but the citizens at large.

That in the fourth year of Philip and Mary ſome orders, which had been before made, were revived by the court of aldermen; which orders ſeem to be the true conſtitution of the hoſpitals. There were to be ſixty-ſix governors at leaſt, fourteen aldermen, and fifty-two grave commoners, citizens, and freemen, four of whom were to be ſcriveners. They were to be elected at a general court, on St. Matthew's day, and to continue in office two years; and the election was to be ratified, or reformed by the next court of Aldermen. Theſe orders were attended to till 1615: but after the troubles, though the aldermen aſſerted their right of government, and declared that no unfreeman ſhould be choſen a governor, yet nothing farther was done, except that they kept up the form of the beadles giving up their ſtaves on St Matthew's day, and preſerved a reſpectable footing as individuals, by confining the preſidency to aldermen, and conſtituting all the aldermen governors without election."

Yeſterday morning were married at Whitechapel church, one William Griffin, a journeyman ſhoemaker, and Anne Moſs, a ſervant girl. About ſeven months ago the parties were out-aſked (as it is called) at the above church; but the girl falling into an ill ſtate of health, retarded the nuptials, and loſing her place, was very ſoon obliged to pawn the moſt part of her cloaths, even to the buckles out of her ſhoes. This, though ſhe at length recovered her health, and was willing to join hands, prevented it: ſhe abſolutely refuſing to go to be married in ſo ragged a condition, yet inceſſantly preſſed by her ſweetheart, who, by her obſtinacy, ſoon grew into a kind of deſpair, neglected his work, depoſited his apparel chiefly as above, and about a fortnight ago, growing

weary of his life, took the following methods to get rid of it: He first wrote a letter to Sir John Fielding, by the penny-post, purporting to come from a person at Bethnal-green, who had the night before been robbed by a footpad, and was obliged to go out of town, and would return by the next session, describing himself (Griffin) to be the robber, and where to be found, &c. But this scheme not answering his expectations, as, upon an inquiry being naturally made after the supposed author of the letter, none such could be found; he then purchased a pistol, and surrendered himself with it to Joseph Girdler, Esq; a justice of the peace in the king's road, desiring him to take his confession of a robbery, which he pretended he had committed, and send him to Newgate, saying he was sorry for what he had done, but times were so hard, trade dead, &c. and he would rather die than live. Whereupon he was actually committed to Clerkenwell Bridewell from the Saturday until the Wednesday following, when he was examined at the public office in Bow-street, before the said Mr. Girdler, Sir John Fielding, and other magistrates; when it appearing that the young lad had a good character, that it was love that was the real occasion of his late extraordinary conduct, and that the girl also on hearing of his being committed to prison, had fallen into fits, and was very ill, he was discharged, and another day appointed for him to come with his intended bride voluntarily before the justices, who promised their assistance in getting them married the ensuing Sunday; accordingly they both appeared, and a young nobleman being present, on hearing the case, generously gave five guineas to Sir John Fielding's clerk, in order to redeem their little clothes, and pay the marriage-dues, who went with the two young people to four different pawnbrokers on Saturday, and redeemed their little goods, and yesterday attended the church, and performed the office of father.

A cause was tried at the court of King's-bench at Guildhall, between one Stroud, a fellowship-porter, of Billingsgate, London, plaintiff, and a corn-factor, defendant; the action was brought against the latter for violently assaulting the plaintiff when about his lawful labour, in unloading corn out of a vessel on float upon the river Thames within the jurisdiction of the lord mayor of the city of London, which was denied by the defendant; and after many learned arguments, by the council on both sides, and examining several witnesses, the plaintiff's case being clearly proved, the jury, without the least hesitation, brought in a verdict for the plaintiff, with full costs.

Was held at the Old Bailey, the session of Admiralty, when three prisoners were tried, two of whom were capitally convicted. 27th.

John Wynne, otherwise Power, late a mariner on board the merchant-ship Polly, Capt. Cox, bound from Bristol to the coast of Guiney, on the slave trade, of which ship, in the absence of the captain, who was on shore at Cape Appolonia, he by force took upon him the command, shooting the chief mate through the head, and wounding

wounding a ſailor; at the ſame time obliging the company to ſwear allegiance to him; after which proceeding to the river Baſſan, moſt barbarouſly murdered a free negro, who was hoſtage on board for two ſlaves, on a ſurmiſe that he intended to raiſe a revolt; firſt whipping him, and cutting him with a hanger; after which one Fitzgerald, another ringleader, uſed him in the ſame manner, till few ſigns of life were left; when, to compleat the tragedy, one other fellow, named Putt, or Pott, cut off his head with an axe, and threw him overboard. He is to be executed on Monday next.

There is now living at a place called Dulwell, near Nottingham, one Mrs. Melvill, wife of Mr. Melvill, grocer and linen-manufacturer, who is pregnant with her 28th child, 22 of whom are living, and all by the ſame huſband.

A clergyman in Normandy, in order to promote agriculture in his pariſh, has made a public declaration from the pulpit, that ſo far from exacting more tythe from thoſe who ſhall improve their farms, he will leſſen the tythes in proportion to the advancement they ſhall appear to have made in new improvements.

A very curious little ſhip of 64 guns, compleatly rigged, and but four inches long, executed by an officer in the navy, was introduced to his R. H. the duke of York, with which his Royal Highneſs was ſo well pleaſed from its ſingular minuteneſs, the ſtructure and elegance in which it is highly finiſhed, as to recommend it to his Majeſty; and his Majeſty has been moſt graciouſly pleaſed to accept of it, eſteeming it worthy of being placed in his royal cabinet of curioſities. The materials of which it is compoſed are gold, ſilver, ſteel, braſs, copper, ebony, ivory, hair, &c. the hull, maſts, yards, booms, &c. being ivory, the guns, anchors, blocks, dead eyes, &c. ſilver, the 64 guns weighing but fifty grains; the colours, viz. royal ſtandard, admiralty and union flags, the jack and enſign, are alſo ivory, it is executed on a ſcale of forty feet to one inch.

On the 7th of January, a little after midnight, a Turkiſh man of war of 94 guns, lying at anchor in the harbour, near Toſſano, at Conſtantinople, ready to ſail with another of the ſame force for the Archipelago, was ſet on fire by a pan of coals being put in a room by ſome of the people to warm them, who fell aſleep. The fire had made ſuch a progreſs while they ſlept, that the people, deſpairing to extinguiſh it, and fearing it ſhould be communicated to the other ſhip, cut the cables. The wind blowing freſh, drove her to a key called Capani, where ſhe ſet fire to five ſaicks (large veſſels that trade to the Black-ſea) two of which were laden with corn. They were all puſhed off from the ſhore, and ſeparated in the harbour. One of them immediately ſet fire to three other ſaicks, which lay at another key: Two of them were drove to a place called Giubali, and ſet fire to the houſes on the Conſtantinople ſide of the harbour, eighty of which were entirely conſumed. Several of the veſſels went along ſhore on this ſide, and ſet fire to a Kioſk of the Grand Seignior's, which was ſoon reduced to aſhes.

Had it not been for the dexterity of the ſlaves of the Bagnio, who ſunk one of the ſhips while ſhe was on fire, and driving near to eighteen large men of war, which lay moored together before the Arſenal, the whole of them muſt inevitably have been conſumed.

The Grand Seignior, the Grand Vizir, and all the great officers of the Porte, were upon the water giving their orders. The human mind cannot picture to itſelf a more ſtriking and horrid ſcene, than to ſee, at the ſame time, nine large floating fires, in the middle of the night, with two great fires on each ſide of the water, which threatened deſtruction to the whole city.

The Grand Seignior, who is bleſſed with an heart of charity and benevolence, has given orders to make up the loſſes of the unhappy ſufferers by water.

The ſame day a Sultana was delivered of a prince, which was made known on Saturday by the firing of the cannon from the Seraglio and the Arſenal, which continued morning, noon, and evening; and there are great rejoicings in the Seraglio.

The Engliſh ambaſſador ſent the uſual compliments to the Reis Effendi upon this occaſion.

13th. They write from Florence, that "the number of young maidens which the chamberlains of the court have reſolved to portion, on account of the happy delivery of the Grand Ducheſs, is one hundred. They are to receive the nuptial benediction from the archbiſhop in the metropolitan church, in preſence of their generous benefactors, and ſeveral other lords and ladies of the firſt rank; and after ſinging te deum, they will go in proceſſion with their huſbands to the Royal Palace, where they are to be entertained with a dinner, and to have the honour of being ſerved by the chamberlains, who will afterwards give them a ball."

Letters from Turin adviſe, that on the 7th ult. at four in the morning, a ſhock of an earthquake was felt in that city.

They write from Leghorn, that a late ſhock of the earth had been felt in the iſle of Scio, which threw down a Greek church, and deſtroyed upwards of forty dwelling houſes.

They write from Genoa, that on the 29th of January, M. Francis Maria Rovere having, on that day, compleated his time of two years as doge of that Republic, the great council met the next day, and nominated fifteen perſons, for one out of that number to be elected to fill up the vacant dignity. On the 31ſt the ſmall council aſſembled, and reduced the nomination of fifteen to ſix: and on the 3d inſtant the great council met again, and elected M. Marcello Durazzo to fill up the vacant dignity of Doge for two years; upon which occaſion the new Doge immediately received the compliments of the nobility of both ſexes, and will receive the compliments of the foreign miniſters and conſuls on Monday.

The laſt letters from New York bring advice, that more new manufactories are going on there; among which is one for braſs wire, and another for enamelling all kinds of trinkets, after the Birmingham and Sheffield manner.

The

The following accounts come from Florence. We learn from Finizzano, a territory of this grand duchy, that between the 21ſt of laſt month and the 4th of the preſent, they had felt thirty-ſix ſhocks of the earth, which has damaged a great number of public edifices, and deſtroyed many country houſes. The mines of copper and ſilver lately diſcovered at Angliari, will bring in 40 per cent.

14th. The following account is given of Mr. Higgins, who was lately committed to the caſtle of Glouceſter. That he was born at Cradley near Bromſgrove in Worceſterſhire. He lived for ſome years at Knutsford, in Cheſhire, where he married a woman of a very good family; that in October 1765, he had ſome buſineſs at Briſtol, for which place he ſet out on foot; that he put up at an eating-houſe near the market, and there received of different people ſeveral conſiderable ſums. He then returned to Glouceſter on foot, and in paſſing on to Upton, he was benighted, and lay under a hedge; that when he came to Upton he took a poſt-chaiſe home, whither he was purſued by Mr. Bloxam, who lived with Mr. Wilſon of this city, and apprehended on ſuſpicion of breaking open Mr. Wilſon's houſe; that whilſt he was in the conſtable's hands at Knutsford, he made his eſcape, and having ordered his wife to diſpoſe of the goods there, ſettled at French Hay. His eſcape from the conſtable, he ſays, induced him to change his name from Edw. Higgins to George Hickſon. He deſired to be excuſed mentioning the names of the perſons of whom he received the money at Briſtol, or from giving any information whence he drew his reſources for the maintenance of himſelf and family. His wife is a genteel woman, and he has five children, ſome of whom are grown up. A large party of gentlemen from Briſtol were to have dined with him the day after he was taken up.

Two perſons from Birmingham, one of whom is the gaoler, came on Friday laſt, and gave information on oath, before Nicholas Hyett, Eſq; that Edward Higgins, lately apprehended at Briſtol, was tranſported in 1754 from Worceſter, and that they ſaw him again in England in 1756.

Died lately at Corfe Caſtle, Mary Symmonds, aged 106 years.

At Corke, Mr. Thaddeus Hynes, aged 105 years.

In Yorkſhire, John Wood, aged 102.

At Folkſtone in Kent, Mrs. Mary Beddingfield, aged 96.

In Ireland, Brien O'Brien, Eſq; aged 109 years.

At New Malton, Mary Bielby, aged 107 years.

At Newcaſtle, John Richardſon, aged 101 years.

In Chick-Lane, Mrs. Eliz. Fennell, aged 100 years.

In Oxford Road, Mrs. Sarah Proſſen, aged 102 years, who had acquired a fortune of 10,000 l. by pawnbroking.

In Chancery-Lane, Mrs. Pimm, aged 100 years.

MARCH.

1ſt. The ſupercargo of the Lord Clive Eaſt-Indiaman, capt. Barclay, outward bound, for China, came to the India-houſe with an

account of the above ſhip being loſt off Boulogne. Two of the crew were drowned.

The grand jury of the city of London preſented a memorial relating to the keeper of the houſe in Chancery-lane for lodging recruits for the Eaſt-India company's ſervice.

Tueſday laſt a cauſe was tried in Weſtminſter-hall, between a gentleman in Surry and a phyſician: the action was brought againſt the latter for criminal converſation with the plaintiff's lady, and a verdict was given with 500l. damages.

The following inſtance of the preſervation of animal life is the moſt extraordinary we remember to have heard of, and is alſo well atteſted: viz. In the late ſtorm, a gentleman at Dufton near Appleby, had two ewe ſheep that lay under the ſnow from Monday the 18th of January till Sunday the 15th of laſt month, being thirty-four days, when they got out of it themſelves without any help; although they had nothing to live upon but ſnow all that time; they could run as ſwift as a child of eight or ten years old; they had ſtood at about five yards diſtance from each other.

There is now in the poſſeſſion of Mr. Barber, of Handley, near Worceſter, a ſow which has had no leſs than 345 *pigs*. In the ſpace of one year in particular, ſhe farrowed three times, had ſeventeen pigs in the firſt litter, eighteen in the ſecond, and nineteen in the third; and this prolific creature is now with pig again.

The amount of the toll of the foot-paſſage over the new bridge at Black-Friars, from Nov. 19th, 1766, to Feb. 10th, 1767, amounted to 758l. 1s. 6d. ½.

Mr. Thomas, the principal ſupercargo on board the Lord Clive Indiaman, ſtays in France to take care of ſuch of the company's effects as may be preſerved out of the wreck. The two ſupercargoes who arrived on Sunday, were ordered on Monday afternoon to the Downs, to proceed to China on board the Vanſittart. 6th.

On Tueſday evening a great number of farmers were obſerved going along Pall-mall with cockades in their hats: on enquiring the reaſon, it appeared they all lived in or near the pariſh of Stanwell, in the county of Middleſex, and that they were returning to their wives and families, to carry them the agreeable news of a bill being rejected for incloſing the ſaid common, which, if carried into execution, might have been the ruin of a great number of families.

Wedneſday laſt were tried, by a ſpecial jury, two cauſes, in both which the chamberlain of London was plaintiff; one againſt T—— J——, and the other againſt J—— S——, for buying and ſelling government ſecurities for their friends, not being brokers: in both which cauſes verdicts were given for the defendants; by which it is now ſettled, that every perſon is at liberty to employ his friend to buy or ſell government ſecurities, without being obliged to be at the expence of employing a broker; which will be a great inducement for people to lay out their money in the funds, and conſequently a great addition to public credit.

On Tueſday night as Charles Whit-

Whitworth, Eſq; member for Bletchingley in Surry, was returning to his houſe at Greenwich, a foot-pad ſtopped his carriage at the end of Peckham-Lane, and demanded his money; but inſtead of complying, Mr. Whitworth let down the glaſs of the carriage, and fired at him with a blunderbuſs; after which the coachman drove on. The man was a few days afterwards found dead a few fields diſtant, and proved to be an oſtler on Blackheath.

10th. John Wynne, otherwiſe Power, was executed purſuant to his ſentence, at Execution-Dock.

About one o'clock in the afternoon, the right hon. the lord-mayor, ſeveral aldermen, and the committees of common-council and of the ſkinners company, went from the manſion-houſe, in a cavalcade of about thirty coaches, to preſent the freedom of the city of London to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland; and on their return they were elegantly entertained at dinner by his lordſhip at the manſion houſe.

On Tueſday evening, one of the deputy bearers of St. Bride's, who had been turned out of his poſt with two others and a grave-digger, for being concerned in bringing a corpſe from a lock-up houſe, to the church-yard of the ſaid pariſh, at Fleet-ditch, late at night, came to the committee of poor, then ſitting in the veſtry, and deſired to be heard in his vindication; accordingly he was admitted, when he declared that the grave-digger came, on the 29th of laſt September, about nine at night, juſt after he had done ſupper, and told him he muſt go with him and two others, to fetch a body to Mr. —— the undertaker. Accordingly he went with him to the undertaker's houſe, where his ſervant immediately took a coffin, and went along with them: on coming near Temple-bar, he aſked the grave-digger (who was the principal in the affair) where he was going to, who told him to Hyde-park hoſpital; but when they came into the Butcher-row, they ſtopped at a certain houſe, and as the grave-digger proceeded in with the perſon who had the coffin, he declared he would not go in, for he did not like the houſe; but, after ſome altercation, he went with the reſt, and with ſome difficulty they perſuaded him up ſtairs; at the top of the houſe, they found a poor wretch laying dead, which they put into the coffin, but that the corpſe and the houſe ſtunk ſo much, that it made him bring up his ſupper, for he believed the body had been dead five or ſix days; however they brought the corpſe down ſtairs, and reſted it in the paſſage, where the perſon of the houſe gave them two pots of beer to drink, which were ſo bad that they could not drink it; on which they deſired the perſon of the houſe to let them have a penny-worth of gin each, and they would pay for it; but he, rapping out an oath, told them he would give it them; on drinking which, the door, which was locked all the while they were in the paſſage, was opened, and they brought the corpſe away; inſtead of carrying it to the undertaker's, as the grave-digger had told him at firſt, when they came to Fleet-market, he then told them the undertaker would not be at home, and they

might as well carry it to the church-yard, which was done accordingly; that they then went to the undertaker's next morning, for their pay, who gave them a ſhilling a-piece; on which one of the bearers told him it was a very hard jobb, and hoped he would give them ſomething to drink; the undertaker then ſaid he had but fourteen ſhillings for the burial, ſeven of which he had paid the pariſh, and four to them, ſo they might judge of the ſmallneſs of his profit; however he gave them a pot of purl, and they departed.

12th. Was held at Merchant-Taylors hall, a general court of the Eaſt-India company, when it appearing by the report of the directors, that the late terms offered by them to government were inadmiſſible, therefore a motion was made by George Dempſter, Eſq; that the court ſhould be adjourned to next Wedneſday, in order that ſome farther propoſitions might be propoſed to accommodate the preſent differences between the company and the miniſtry; and after a debate of near five hours, Sir James Hodges moved that the court ſhould be adjourned to next Monday, which motion was unanimouſly approved of by the whole proprietors.

They write from Edinburgh, that on Thurſday the 26th of February, between five and ſix in the afternoon, the ferry-boat on the water of Garry, at Invergarry, near the paſs of Killicrankie, containing thirty paſſengers, was carried down the river by the rapidity of the current, and was overſet; by which melancholy accident no leſs than twenty-ſeven perſons have moſt unfortunately loſt their lives. Theſe unhappy ſufferers were returning from Mouline market, where they had been diſpoſing of their linen yarn. Six farmers, with their wives, periſhed on this occaſion. This paſſage, though the only acceſs to a populous country, is very rapid and dangerous; and this is the third time, within theſe twelve months, that this boat has been forced down the river, by the immenſe rapidity of the current, though on the two former occaſions happily no lives were loſt.

As ſome workmen were lately digging down King Barrow, at the ſouth end of Stoborough, near Wareham, in Dorſetſhire, to make the turnpike road in the centre, at the bottom of the Barrow, and even with the ſurface of the earth, in the natural ſandy ground, was diſcovered a very large hollow trunk of an oak, rudely excavated, ten feet long, four in diameter, much decayed; on opening it were found many bones of an human body wrapped up in a large covering of ſeveral deer ſkins, neatly ſewed together. On unfolding the covering was found a ſmall veſſel of oak, of a very dark colour, in the ſhape of an urn. On the outſide was cut a great number of lines, but nothing was found in it. There were the remains ſeemingly of a piece of gold lace, four inches long and two and a half broad, found ſtuck on a deer-ſkin covering, which was very much decayed.

A weſt-country barge, laden with ſeven hundred ſacks of flour, and three hundred quarters of malt, is ſunk in the river a little above Windſor.

About

About eight in the even-
13th. ing, the Dauphineſs died at Verſailles. Her highneſs was born at Dreſden, the 4th of November 1731, of Frederic Auguſtus III. king of Poland and elector of Saxony, and Mary Joſepha Benedict, arch-ducheſs of Auſtria, eldeſt daughter to the emperor Joſeph. She was married the 9th of November 1747, to Louis Dauphin of France, who died at Fontainbleau the 20th of December 1765. By this prince ſhe has left five children, three ſons and two daughters. Upon this melancholy occaſion, his moſt chriſtian majeſty and all the royal family retired immediately to Marli.

Laſt night the priſoners in the Gatehouſe roſe in the abſence of the head turnkey, ruſhed upon the deputy turnkey, and knocked him down, then took the keys and opened the door, and ſix made their eſcape, but by timely aſſiſtance the reſt were all ſecured.

We hear from Richards-caſtle, (a populous pariſh of ſeveral miles extent, famous for the ſalubrity of its air, and celebrated by Cambden and other hiſtorians, for that ſtrong and pure ſpring, called Bonewell) that only one perſon died there, in the laſt year: An inſtance ſcarce to be paralleled in the whole nation.—It is remarkable alſo that this pariſh divides the counties of Hereford and Salop; that the church ſtands in the former, and the parſonage-houſe in the latter county.

Between nine and ten o'clock in the morning, a moſt dreadful fire broke out at Ottery St. Mary, in the county of Devon, which continued till ſix in the evening, and conſumed the better part of the houſes in the town. Upwards of fifty dwelling-houſes, with ſhops, backhouſes, and the ſhambles, are reduced to aſhes; the wind being very high, it was with the greateſt difficulty prevented from deſtroying the whole town.

Was held a general court of the Eaſt-India company, 18th, at Merchant-taylors hall, Threadneedle-ſtreet, which conſiſted of a very numerous meeting of the proprietors: the court was opened with a ſpeech from a very reputable proprietor, calling to mind the great ſervices and merits of lord Clive: and concluded with the following motions, viz.

That it is the opinion of this court, that the important ſervices rendered to the company by lord Clive, merit a grateful acknowledgment and return; and that a grant to his lordſhip, and his perſonal repreſentatives, of an additional term in the jaghire of ten years, commencing from the determination of his lordſhip's preſent right therein, would be a proper acknowledgment and return for ſuch important ſervices; and that it be recommended to the court of directors, that upon any future propoſitions being made, either to parliament, or to his majeſty's miniſters, this reſolution of the general court be humbly repreſented.

This motion being ſeconded, a debate enſued, which concluded in a motion of adjournment made by Mr. Dempſter; upon which the court divided, and it was carried againſt the adjournment, by a majority of 73, viz. 243 againſt 170; then the main queſtion being put, a ballot for the deciſion of the ſame was demanded by two different

ſets of proprietors; the firſt conſiſting of gentlemen who were for the queſtion, the other of gentlemen who voted for the adjournment of the court. At the concluſion of the bollot, the numbers were, for

Sir George Colebroke's queſt. 456
Mr. George Dempſter's 264

After the concluſion of theſe queſtions, the proprietors formed themſelves into a general court, when Mr. Dempſter moved to reconſider the queſtion concerning the additional term of ten years propoſed to be granted lord Clive in his jaghire, commencing from his lordſhip's preſent intereſt therein, and which was to be ballotted for on the 24th. This motion was oppoſed by Sir James Hodges, knt. as being entirely contrary to order, and the proceedings of the ſaid court. After a debate, which laſted till half an hour paſt ten o'clock, the queſtion for adjournment to the 24th was carried by a very conſiderable majority.

They write from Scotland, that the ruins of the ancient city of Camelon have been lately diſcovered within four miles of Perth. This city was the capital of the Pictiſh kingdom before it was over-run and deſtroyed by the Scots about 800 years ago.

Since the erection of the Britiſh linen company at Edinburgh in 1746, the annual amount of linen ſtamped for ſale in Scotland, is increaſed from 5480324 yards, value 222870 l. 13 s. to 12746659 yards, value 579227 l. 11 s. which was the report of that ſociety for the laſt year.

23d. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, attended by the duke of Ancaſter and the earl of Eglinton; when the royal aſſent was given to thirty-one publick and private bills, among which were the following, viz.

The bill for granting an aid to his majeſty by a land-tax for the ſervice of the preſent year.

The bill for the better regulating his majeſty's marine forces when on ſhore.

The bill for rebuilding the pariſh-church of St. Martin's in Worceſter.

The bill for the more effectual maintenance and relief of the poor of Queenborough in Kent.

The bill to enlarge the term and powers granted to the inhabitants of St. Mary Rotherhithe, by certain funeral rates, for rebuilding their pariſh-church, &c.

They write from Newcaſtle, that one William Hodgſon, aged twenty-two, labourer, at Sir Laurence Dundas's allum work, fell, during the late great ſnow, from the top of the cliff at the new work at Loſthouſe, which from top to bottom meaſures juſt 155 yards. The precipice is ſomewhat ſlanting for about two thirds from the top. He ſlid down that part of the rock on his breech with amazing velocity, carrying down with him a large quantity of ſnow, which preſerved him in a great meaſure; and being thrown with great vehemence from a projecting crag, which turned him heels over head, he fell down perpendicular upwards of fifty yards into a ſnow drift at the foot of a cliff, where he lay above half an hour before his companions could get to him to take him up; and indeed they were ſome time in ſuſpence whether they ſhould go to him or to the director of the work, in order

to have the coroner ſent for, becauſe they never expected to find him alive. His right thigh was very much broke; the left knee, and the inward extremity of the right collar bone, were diſlocated. He was inſenſible for ſome days, and a month elapſed before he recovered a right uſe of his reaſon. His left hand is paralytic; but there are at preſent hopes of his recovering the uſe of it in a ſhort time. It is remarkable that he was ſo far from having any preſence of mind during the fall, that he has not the leaſt remembrance of it, and on growing ſenſible, would not for ſome time believe that he had fallen down the cliff, though he remembers being at the top of it juſt before he ſlipt down; but he knows no more of what followed than if he had not exiſted, nor has any idea of the ſpace of time during which he was inſenſible.

His Daniſh majeſty was taken ill of a ſcarlet fever, which was thought infectious, notwithſtanding which, the queen moſt aſſiduouſly attended him, nor would ſhe leave him day or night till his life was out of danger.

A gentleman near Warrington in Lancaſhire, labouring under a delirium, conceived himſelf beſet by robbers and aſſaſſins, and being very much diſordered in the night, the ſervants endeavoured to get into his room to ſecure him, when he ſuddenly opened the door, and in the dark diſcharged a fowling piece among them, whereby an old ſervant whom he had a great regard for, was killed, and others were much hurt, to the inexpreſſible grief of the family.

The numbers upon the ballot taken at Merchant-taylors hall, upon the queſtion propoſed by ſir James Hodges, knt. relating to the grant of an additional term of ten years, after the determination of lord Clive's preſent right in his jaghire ſhall be expired, was declared as follows:

For the queſtion	—	361
Againſt it	—	332
	Majority	29

After the above declaration, Mr. Baker moved for an immediate adjournment. This motion was oppoſed by another proprietor, who offered an amendmant to this queſtion, viz. That the court ſhould be adjourned to a certain day, in order to receive the directors report, concerning Mr. Sullivan's, and the other propoſitions referred to the directors conſideration, for accommodating the company's preſent diſputes with government. Theſe two queſtions cauſed long debates, which laſted till after 11 o'clock, when a diviſion being demanded upon the firſt queſtion, there were

For adjourning *ſine die*		86
Againſt it.	—	76
	Majority	10

The following extraordinary affair happened at Ferrybridge. On Monday morning the ſecond inſt. the wife of Thomas Benſon of that place, being ſuddenly taken ill, ſhe to all appearance expired, and continued without any ſymptoms of life the whole day, and every proper requiſite was ordered for her funeral; but the huſband, hoping for ſome conſolation in his diſtreſs, by ſome money which he had reaſon to believe ſhe had ſecreted from him in her life-time,

began

began to ſearch for it on Tueſday morning, and found ſeven pounds ten ſhillings in crown pieces, concealed in an old box: but, upon his attempting to take it away, he was ſurprized by his wife, who was juſt then recovered, met him, and terribly frightened him, by appearing as if nothing had happened, and continued ſeemingly in good health till Thurſday noon, when ſhe actually expired.

LENT CIRCUIT.

At Ayleſbury aſſizes, five were capitally convicted, four of whom were reprieved.

At Bedford aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, one of whom was reprieved.

At Briſtol aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, two of whom were reprieved.

At Cambridge aſſizes, two were capitally convicted.

At Chelmsford aſſizes, nine were capitally convicted, eight of whom were reprieved.

At Dorcheſter aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, one of whom was reprieved.

At Eaſt Grinſtead aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, but were reprieved.

At the iſle of Ely aſſizes, none were capitally convicted, there not being ſo much as one ſingle indictment before the grand jury.

At Glouceſter aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted, three of whom were reprieved. Five of the rioters, condemned at the ſpecial commiſſion, were ordered to be tranſported for life.

At Hereford aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted.

At Huntingdon aſſizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Kingſton aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, one of whom was Richard Mihil, a baker, for the murder of his brother; an account of which the reader may ſee in our laſt year's chronicle.—At this aſſize a remarkable cauſe was tried between a gentleman, plaintiff, and Mr. Wm. Courtney, defendant; the action was upon a wager of 100 guineas, which was reduced into writing, that plaintiff procured three horſes that ſhould go ninety miles in three hours, which defendant laid he did not. The plaintiff proved his caſe very well; but, it appearing to the court and jury that it was an unfair bet, the jury gave a verdict for the defendant. It ſeems the manner plaintiff performed this undertaking was by ſtarting all the three horſes together, ſo that they had but thirty miles a-piece to run in the three hours; which was done with all the eaſe imaginable.

At Lancaſter aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted.

At Lincoln aſſizes, two were capitally convicted.

At Maidſtone aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, one of whom was Robert Rymes for the murder of Richard Williamſon, hoſtler at the Antelope, at Dartford. Rymes, who had been long a vagabond, came into the kitchen, and demanded beer, which the maſter of the inn refuſed; on which he became troubleſome: The hoſtler was ordered to turn him out. Rymes ſtruggled hard, and ſwore he would ſtab him. The hoſtler defended himſelf with a ſtick, and then ran from Rymes, who purſued him about

bout an hundred yards, overtook him, and gave him a mortal wound in his breaſt, of which he died two days after. The trial laſted five hours, and the jury brought in their verdict wilful murder, and in conſequence Rymes was executed at Dartford next day. He died without the leaſt remorſe, ſaying he was guilty of no crime, nor would ever forgive his proſecutor, for what he did was only in his own defence.

Nottingham proved a maiden aſſize.

At the aſſizes at Oakham, two were capitally convicted, but were reprieved.

At Oxford aſſizes, none were capitally convicted.

At Reading aſſizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Saliſbury aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, two of whom were reprieved.

At Shrewſbury aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted.

At Stafford aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted, all of whom were reprieved, except a woman for a robbery, who pleading her belly, was reſpited to the 20th of June.

At Suffolk aſſizes, four were capitally convicted, but were all reprieved.

At Taunton aſſizes, four were capitally convicted, but have been all reprieved.

At Thetford aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted.

At Warwick aſſizes, four were capitally convicted, one of whom was reprieved.

At Wincheſter aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted.

At the aſſizes for the county of York, five were capitally convicted, three of whom were reprieved.

At the aſſizes for York city, one woman was capitally convicted.

The late dauphineſs hath bequeathed ſeveral religious jewels to the queen; her wedding ring to the cathedral church of Chartres; a picture repreſenting Night to the biſhop of Verdun, her firſt almoner, whom ſhe recommends to the king in her will, as alſo Mr. Pantier de la Breuille, her phyſician, and Mr. d'Artis, valet de chambre of the late dauphin; a picture of that prince in the regimentals of a dragoon, to the duke de la Vaguyon, with a precious relic; another relic to the counteſs de Marſan, governeſs to the children of France; and a ſuperb ſnuff-box to each of her ladies. That princeſs has alſo ſignified her intentions, that all her domeſtics be amply rewarded. According to her deſire, her heart was depoſited in the royal abbey of St. Dennis, by the cardinal de Luynes, and the counteſs de la Marche accompanied it thither. Her highneſs's body was removed on Saturday to Fontainebleau, and the next day to the metropolitan church of Sens, where it was depoſited in the ſame vault with the remains of the late dauphin. The funeral ſervice was performed by the cardinal de Luynes.

26th. The governors of the city of London lying-in-hoſpital held their annual feaſt, &c. when 330l. was collected for the charity.

As ſeven or eight muſqueteers were coming out of an eating-houſe in Paris, where they had drank plentifully, they happened to be ſplaſhed by a little cart that a poor man was drawing along, on which they fell upon the poor fellow, and beat him ſeverely. A ſoldier of the

the watch seeing this, called the guard, which being come, would have seized the musqueteers, but they drew their swords, and threatened to run through the body whosoever should dare to lay hold of them. More guards were called, but this reinforcement served only to irritate the musqueteers. They were desired to lay down their arms, and the affair should be dropped, but in vain; nothing could persuade them; so that the guards, after having behaved to them in a manner suitable to their quality, fired a musquet shot, which happily did no hurt, but was the signal of a sharp and obstinate fight on both sides, in which one of the musqueteers was mortally wounded; the others fled. Most of the soldiers of the guard were wounded in this battle, which lasted near two hours.

They write from Hertford in New-England of the 12th of January, that the weather, which of late had been very cold, changed to warm; and last Monday it began to rain, which continued that night and next day; there being a good deal of snow on the ground, it occasioned a vast and sudden flood, which has done great damage to the mills, dams, bridges, &c. In this place a large dam is carried away, together with a saw-mill, and the greatest part of a grist mill, in which was destroyed a considerable quantity of grain and meal; another grist mill on the same stream has received some damage, and the great bridge was with the greatest difficulty preserved. A warehouse, fitted up for, and occupied by a family, at the ferry, was entirely carried off by the ice, and the family very narrowly escaped. Happily the ice stopped before the height of the flood, or it is probable all the stores and dwelling houses at the river side had been swept away. All the west division bridges but one are carried away, and their mills much damaged. Besides the above, the town will suffer greatly in the loss of fences, which are prodigiously damaged. At Middletown, the great bridge lately erected, is carried away, as are also several other bridges on the same river; in the west part of that town several bridges, mills, and dams are swept away. Mr. Stephen Blake of that place, an under sheriff, and his son about twelve years old, were both drowned, in attempting to cross a bridge at the south end of the town. At Suffield, all their mills, dams, and bridges, are carried away, or much damaged. At Farmington, a fulling-mill, with its dam, has been carried off; their bridges are a good deal damaged. The bridge at Windsor, which lately cost 200 l. in building, is destroyed. At Wintonbury, a fulling mill, and dam, belonging to Capt. Gillet, were carried away, together with a quantity of cloth. On the post road between this place and New York there are only Kingsbridge and a bridge at Norwolk left standing. New Haven has suffered very much, having lost three or four large bridges, and two or three dykes made for damming out the tides.

A calculation of the number of cattle, &c. killed in one year in the city of London, made by the late Mr. Empson, 1761: Sheep and lambs 711,121; bulls, oxen, and cows, 78,254; calves, 104,760; hogs for pork, 146,932; for bacon,

bacon, 41,000; ſucking pigs, 52,600.

Another fire has nearly completed the total ruin of the unfortunate town of Bridgetown in Barbadoes. It broke out between eight and nine at night, on the 27th of December, and continued burning till morning, with more fury than the dreadful one of the 19th of May. Above forty dwelling-houſes are burnt down, beſides ſeveral conſiderable ſtores and timber-yards. It began in an old ſtore of Meſſrs. Bedford and Co. but in what manner no one can give any account. Several large yards full of lumber and coals being contiguous, it was impoſſible to extinguiſh it till it had conſumed all within its reach, beſides ſeveral capital houſes belonging to the merchants; a vaſt quantity of boards, planks, ſtaves, and heading for ſugar and rum caſks, &c. were deſtroyed, as moſt of the trade was carried on in this ſpot ſince the former terrible diſaſter.

They write from Venice, that the deputies of the republic gave lately to the reigning duke of Wurtemburgh the diverſion of a bull-fight in the ſquare of St. Mark. Forty-eight maſks, dreſſed in the Engliſh, Spaniſh, Swiſs, and Hungarian manner, harraſſed the bulls while they were baited by the dogs; after which two perſons ſtruck off, at a ſingle blow, the heads of ſix bulls ſucceſſively. The baiting of three bulls, with fireworks fixed to them, cloſed the diverſion, at which upwards of twenty thouſand perſons aſſiſted; and there was afterwards a grand ſupper.

The edict againſt luxury is ſo ſtrictly obſerved at Stockholm, that a counſellor of ſtate, who had neglected to have a velvet border ſtript off a cloak which he had worn many years, was ſummoned a few days ago before the tribunal to whom the execution of the ſaid edict belongs, and reprimanded; and a lady, reſpectable no leſs by her merit than her high birth, has been alſo obliged to appear before them, for drinking a diſh of chocolate in her box at the play-houſe.

The king of Naples, playing lately with the prince de Spaccatorno, gentleman of his chamber, accidentally tore one of the prince's ruffles. The latter, who ought to have taken it only in joke, immediately uttered ſome harſh expreſſions, and was put under an arreſt for ſome days in the caſtle; from whence he was no ſooner releaſed, than, inſtead of going to make his excuſes to the king, as good ſenſe dictated, he went to the prince de St. Nicandre, formerly his majeſty's governor, and there made uſe of terms as unguarded as before; for which audacity he has been again puniſhed by the loſs of all his poſts, and baniſhment to his eſtate in Sicily.

Letters from Saintonge adviſe, that the wolves have lately made moſt terrible ravages in the neighbourhood of St. Jean d'Angeli, where ſeveral perſons who had been bit by them have died mad.

A woman, by profeſſion a ſeamſtreſs, had been condemned by an arret of the parliament of Paris, to make the amende honorable, to be fixed to the Carcan, to be branded and confined to the ſaltpetre-houſe for nine years, for having, by means of a forged regiſter of her firſt huſband's burial, contracted a ſecond marriage with another man, whoſe widow ſhe now is. The writing-

maſter,

master, who forged the register, is likewise condemned to the gallies for life, after making the amende honorable, and being branded in the shoulders. This sentence began to be executed last Thursday.

There was lately tried at Chelmsford, in Essex, two causes, wherein William Butler, and John Mungall, of Barking, in the same county, fishermen, were plaintiffs; and an officer of the customs, at Malden, defendant. The action was brought for the illegal seizure and detainer of the plaintiff's fishing-boat, and for killing and otherwise damaging, with a boat-hook, their cargo of fish, for no other reason than the plaintiff's having on board an old rusty musket, a pound of shot, and half a pound of powder, which the officer called fire arms, against the king. A verdict was found for the plaintiffs, with damages and full costs of suit.

A coal-mine has been opened near Campbeltown in Cantire, which promises to succeed well; in time it may prove an advantageous trade to that port, which promises to be a flourishing place, from whence many vessels are going to the Newfoundland fishery.

They write from Genoa, that the hereditary prince of Brunswick arrived there from Turin, early in the morning of the 20th of February. At half an hour after his arrival, he was complimented by the master of the ceremonies in the republic's name, who renewed the offer of a deputation on behalf of the republic, which his Serene Highness desired, in the most polite manner, to be excused from accepting. The prince will embark, in a few days, on board his majesty's ship Montreal, for Antibes or Toulon.

The late earthquake has done considerable damage to the houses in this city. It has been succeeded by several other shocks not so violent as the first, and there is a constant tremor in the earth, felt in the city and its environs.

On the 9th of February, at a quarter after four in the morning, three successive shocks of the earth were felt at Grasse in France. The first lasted but a few seconds, tho' it waked several persons in bed, and threw down some tiles and chimnies. During its continuance, a sound was heard like that of a strong gust of wind. The two other shocks were not so sensibly felt. These shocks were considerably more violent in Italy; but diminished in proportion as they were nearer to France. Their force was greatest at Venice, less considerable at Genoa, and still less at Nice.

By the earthquakes at Fivizzano in Tuscany, the cathedral is rent in many parts; the church of the Cordeliers has suffered much, and the great hospital, the town-hall, and the salt-magazine, are greatly damaged.

On the 12th of this month, at three in the morning, a fire broke out in the king's palace at Warsaw, and in two hours destroyed one entire wing; in which, amongst other people, were lodged a part of his majesty's own family. No lives were lost, but papers of great importance to the republic are destroyed.

Prince Repnin, ambassador from Russia, presented a declaration to the king of Poland, signed by the empress, by which she demands, that the Dissidents of Poland and Lithua-

Lithuania be forthwith reſtored to the enjoyment of their ancient rights and privileges; and that, in order to accompliſh this, ſhe has found herſelf obliged to order 30,000 men to enter Poland, who will not leave the country till the Diſſidents are put upon an equal footing with the other citizens.

A conſpiracy was formed among the felons in the North-Gate jail in Cheſter, wherein one Evan Thomas, who was confined for a murder and robbery, was the ring-leader. About eight, when the turnkey was going to put him and three others into the dungeon, Thomas ſeized him, and threw him into the dungeon, and took the key from him and locked him in; his cries brought Mr. Whitehead, the gaoler, down to his aſſiſtance, when Thomas ran a penknife into his throat, and killed him on the ſpot. They went up into the houſe, and ſeizing Mrs. Whitehead, demanded the key of the North-Gate from her, who told them that her huſband had it in his pocket; upon which they went down ſtairs to ſearch for it. In the mean time Mrs. Whitehead unlocked the North-Gate door, to call aſſiſtance; but they came up again, and ſeized her while the door was open: three men, however, coming out of the ſtreet, ſecured three of the felons; but the above Evan Thomas made his eſcape: his irons were found the next day in a field near the city.

30th. About nine at night, four men, coming to town from Holloway in a hackney-coach, were attacked by four foot-pads, who, on ſome reſiſtance being made, ſhot one of the men through the head, and he expired immediately. They took from the reſt about 15 l. and helped the dead man (one Griffiths, a turner in Clerkenwell) into the coach, and then made their eſcape.—Intelligence of this murder, with a deſcription of the murderers, being ſent to Sir John Fielding immediately, one of them was taken next day, and by his means all the reſt.

A terrible accident happened at a colliery near Farfield, Durham. The pits were 80 fathom deep; and on Friday morning laſt, when all the lands were at work, it went off with a great exploſion, by which 39 perſons loſt their lives. Moſt of their bodies are got up, but in a very mangled manner. The owners are now giving 20 l. premium per man; and ſo great is the neceſſity of the poor, that they are already nearly ſupplied.

The whole quantity of the different ſorts of grain imported this month at the port of London, amounts to 71,153 qrs.

The following are the particulars of a murder perpetrated by Alexander Grant, alias Dearg, weaver, in Drummulie, in the ſhire of Elgin, on John M'Donald, alias M'Iſaac, tenant in Drummulie, on the 15th of March. Grant kept a whiſky houſe, as did M'Donald; the latter ſupplied with better liquor, and, being of a more affable temper, engroſſed all the company. Grant's envy was raiſed, and he was often heard to ſay, "he would do him an ill turn." On a Sunday, Grant, with M'Donald's brother-in-law, and ſome neighbours, went to drink whiſky at M'Donald's; when, after they were pretty much intoxicated, they agreed to ſpend the afternoon over Grant's whiſky. They ſet out, but, when they

they were at a diſtance from M'Donald's, Grant told the company, he had ſomething to communicate to him, which he choſe to do in private, and deſired them to ſtep forward. After waiting ſome time at a diſtance, they concluded they had gone back again to M'Donald's; but, on returning, found them ſtruggling together, and ſaw Grant plunge a large knife into M'Donald's body, and throw him on the ground. This done, he advanced with his knife reeking with the blood of the unfortunate man, and made at his brother-in-law, who, with the reſt of the company, endeavoured to ſave themſelves by flight. Grant overtook him, and gave him ſeveral wounds, and, if the reſt had not interpoſed, would have killed him on the ſpot. The villain fled to the woods, and 200 men are now in purſuit of him. The brother-in-law's life is deſpaired of.

31ſt. Between eleven and twelve at night, large detachments of troops were ſent to each of the ſix different houſes of Jeſuits in Madrid; and the doors being opened, the bells were firſt ſecured, and a centinel was poſted at every cel, the occupier of which being obliged to riſe, they were aſſembled, and the king of Spain's commands were ſignified to them. In the mean time, all the hired coaches and chaiſes at Madrid, together with a number of waggons, were properly diſtributed; and early in the morning the Jeſuits, to the number of about three hundred and fifty, were in motion. They were allowed to carry every neceſſary along with them. They took the road to Carthagena, where they will embark for Rome.

There is now living in a village near Ludlow, in Shropſhire, one John Saunders and his wife, whoſe ages added together, make 212, the man being 107, and the woman 105; they are both chiefly ſupported by the charity of ſome neighbouring gentlemen.

Died, Nicholas Dufrenois, a notary at Berrieux, in the dioceſe of Laon, the 15th ult. aged 101. He married at 75, and had ſix children; and never had any illneſs.

At Wigtown in Scotland, Mary Finlater, aged 113 years.

At Hampſtead, Mrs. Jane Staples, aged 106 years.

APRIL.

1ſt. The governors of the Magdalen charity held their anniverſary feaſt at drapers hall, Throgmorton-ſtreet, after a ſermon, preached at St. George's Hanover-ſquare, by the Reverend Mr. Sellon, Chaplain to the Earl of Pomfret. The collection, at the church and hall, amounted to 523l. 8s.

2d. A cauſe, which has been depending for upwards of two years, between two gentlemen in the neighbourhood of Exeter, has at length been determined at the aſſizes for that city. The action was brought againſt the defendant for carrying the produce of the harveſt of the year 1764, without giving notice to the plaintiff's deputies of their intention of carrying the ſame, in order that the plaintiff, as owner of the tythes of the ſaid pariſh, might ſend for his tenth of the produce; when, after a trial which laſted 14 hours, in which the

the plaintiff proved that it had been a cuſtom during the lives of his father, grand-father, and great-grand-father, for 100 years laſt paſt, to have ſuch notice given; and that it would be impoſſible for the owner of the tythes to receive a quarter part of his due, without the farmer was obliged to give ſuch notice, the extent of the pariſh being at leaſt ten miles; a verdict was given in favour of the plaintiff, with full coſts of ſuit.

3d. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, attended by his grace the duke of Ancaſter and the earl of Denbigh, and gave the royal aſſent to the following bills, viz.

The bill to raiſe 1,800,000 l. by loans on exchequer bills, and a lottery for the ſervice of the preſent year.

The bill to apply the ſum granted for the pay and cloathing of the militia for 1767.

The bill to enlarge the term and powers granted for building two new churches in the town of Liverpool.

The bill to enable the earl of Strathmore to take and uſe the name of Bowes, purſuant to the will of George Bowes, Eſq; deceaſed.

And alſo to ſeveral road, incloſure, and naturalization bills.

It is ſaid, there are now in England three dukes of France, and twenty-nine other noblemen of that kingdom.

4th. The general order for the expulſion of the Jeſuits which began to be put in execution in Madrid on the firſt inſtant, was this day compleated throughout all the dominions of the king of Spain.

The ſubjects at Cambridge for the prizes of fifteen guineas each, given by the members of the univerſity, are this year,

For the ſenior bachelors;

Utrum cenſoris Romani diſciplina reipublicæ utilis fuerit.

For the middle batchelors;

Utrum poſſeſſorem beârint ſæpius an perdiderint divitiæ.

The exerciſes to be delivered in by the 10th of June in the uſual manner.

A dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning did conſiderable damage at Provence in France. The lightning ſet fire to the royal abbey of St. James, by which one of the main beams in the ſteeple was burnt, ſo as to give way in the angle; two other churches were ſet on fire in the neighbourhood; the bells of one melted, and the other entirely conſumed.

13th. His ſerene highneſs the hereditary prince of Brunſwick arrived from his travels, at St. James's, after an abſence from England, of one year and two days.

15th. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, and gave the royal aſſent to the following bills, viz.

The bill to continue an act for allowing the free importation of wheat and wheat-flour, barley, barley meal, and pulſe, for a further limited time, from any part of Europe.

The bill for laying an additional duty on baſt, or chip, ſtraw, cane and horſe-hair hats or bonnets imported.

The bill to enable his majeſty to grant certain annuities to his three brothers, their royal highneſſes the dukes of York, Glouceſter, and Cumberland.

The bill for making the river Ure navigable from its junction with the rivsr Swale to the borough of Rippon in Yorkſhire.

The bill for lighting, cleanſing, and paving that part of the pariſh of St. Botolph, without Aldgate, and the precinct of St. Catherine's.

The bill to enable the truſtees of the Muſeum to exchange, ſell, or diſpoſe of, any duplicates of books, medals, coins, &c. and to purchaſe others in lieu thereof.

The bill to enable Henry duke of Buccleugh, a minor, to make a ſettlement on his intended marriage with lady Elizabeth Montague.

The following odd relation is atteſted as a fact. An inquiſition was taken at Newbery, Berks, on the body of a child near two years old, who fell into the river Kennet, and was drowned. The jury brought in their verdict *Accidental death*.—The body was diſcovered by a very ſingular experiment, which was as follows: After diligent ſearch had been made in the river for the child, to no purpoſe, a two-penny loaf, with a quantity of quickſilver put into it, was ſet floating from the place where the child, it was ſuppoſed, had fallen in, which ſteered its courſe down the river upwards of half a mile, before a great number of ſpectators, when the body happening to lay on the contrary ſide of the river, the loaf ſuddenly tacked about, and ſwam acroſs the river, and gradually ſunk near the child, when both the child and loaf were immediately brought up, with grapples ready for that purpoſe.

One of the crimps who decoy men to go abroad, met with a young fellow who he thought would anſwer his purpoſe, and told him that he would treat him with a pot of beer, if he would only ſay to a perſon juſt by that he was enliſted to ſerve the Eaſt-India company, by which he would win a wager; but the young man refuſed, on which the crimp pulled out a paper, and ſaid he had a warrant againſt him for ſtealing a ſilver tankard from a public houſe, valued at above 12 l. and thereupon inſiſted on his going with him; when a man paſſing by, enquired into the affair, and found it was a trick to get the young fellow to ſome lock-up houſe; he thereupon inſiſted upon their going with him to the Manſion-houſe, but it being late, they were both lodged all night in the Poultry Compter, and on Saturday were carried before the right hon. the lord mayor, when the fact appeared to be as above, that the crimp had no real charge againſt the young fellow for theft, and that it was an artifice generally uſed to get men to lock-up houſes, where they were confined in ſuch a manner, that it is impoſſible for them to acquaint their friends of their ſituation: upon which the crimp was committed to Newgate, and the young fellow bound over to appear againſt him at the next ſeſſions at the Old Bailey.

The committee of polite arts, &c. in the Strand adjudged the firſt premium for landſcape painting to the ingenious Mr. Jones, formerly pupil to Mr. Wilſon, for his truly meritorious performance; the

the ſecond, to Mr. John Gardnor, maſter of an academy in Kenſington. The merits of both pictures appeared ſo equal, that the caſting vote was left in the breaſt of the chairman. There was likewiſe given to Mr. Dean, landſcape-painter, twenty guineas as a bounty, his picture having great ſhare of merit.

There has been lately publiſhed a ſheet liſt of changes, ſaid to have happened during the preſent reign; by which it appears that there have been no leſs than 2 lord chancellors, 4 lord preſidents, 5 lord keepers of the privy ſeal, and once the ſeal in commiſſion, 5 firſt lords of the treaſury, 13 other lords of the treaſury, 6 chancellors of the exchequer, 5 lord chamberlains, 2 vice chamberlains, 3 grooms of the ſtole, 31 different lords of the bedchamber, 22 different grooms of the bed chamber, 4 keepers of the great wardrobe, 4 groom porters, 2 lord ſtewards, 5 comptrollers, 5 treaſurers, 5 cofferers, 12 different clerks of board of green cloth, 3 treaſurers of the chamber, 5 maſters of the horſe; 11 ſecretaries of ſtate, 7 firſt lords of the admiralty, 23 different lords of the admiralty, 8 firſt lords of trade, 18 different lords of trade, 9 poſt-maſters, 4 pay-maſters, 3 treaſurers of the navy, 3 ſecretaries of war, 9 keepers of privy ſeal in Scotland, 8 vice treaſurers of Ireland.

There are above as many more changes mentioned in the laſt liſt.

17th. This morning, between twelve and one o'clock, a fire broke out in the kitchen of Mr. Wood, cheeſemonger, in Hungerford-market, Strand, ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by ſome linen being left near the fire, which in a few hours conſumed that houſe, a butcher's on one ſide of it, and a ſmall houſe on the other, at the upper end of the piazza, damaged two more houſes in the front, and ſome out-houſes backwards. The flames were ſo rapid, that Mr. Wood's family had not time to ſave any part of the ſtock, and but little of the furniture. A jeweller, who lodged in the houſe where it began, loſt ſome diamonds of conſiderable value.

On the 16th of Auguſt laſt, the Pitt, Capt. Bothomley, from Rotterdam for Angola, ran aſhore on Cape Bajadore, on the Coaſt of Barbary; 25 of the Crew going aſhore, were ſtript naked by about 100 Moors, in which condition they remained 14 days, while the moors were getting all they could from the ſhip; and then breaking her up, they burnt to pieces, and ſtove the caſks of liquor as they came aſhore, for the ſake of the iron and hoops, which were divided among them with the reſt of the plunder; then ſeparating the crew, they were ſold in the country for camels, ſheep, goats, &c. About three weeks after, meeting together again, the natives concluded to carry them to the emperor of Morocco. After 49 days travel, they arrived at Teredant, and were carried before the baſhaw or governor, who treated them kindly, ſupplying them with plenty of bread and grapes. After 14 days reſt they travelled in ſeven days to Morocco. The laſt day's march Meſſ. Adams and Hoſier of Santa Cruz ſent two Moors to conduct them; but being in two parties, only 12 got ſafe, and 12 were taken by the ſoldiers, and Hugh Evans was left upon the mountains but got ſafe in. After eight days they were preſented to

the emperor, who appointed them a houſe among the Jews at Miccaneſſe, with an allowance of two blanks a day, and liberty to walk about. By producing a Mediterranean paſs, after five months they were permitted to go to Sallee, where the Daniſh conſul behaved with great generoſity and benevolence, ſupplying them with money and victuals. From thence they travelled to Larach, and then to Tetuan, and paſſed over to Gibraltar, from whence ſome came to England, and others entered on board a man of war.

The froſt was ſo ſevere in the province of Dauphiny, that it deſtroyed the vines, and totally cut off the bloſſoms of the early fruit trees.

A body of tinners aſſembled near Truro in Cornwall, and rummaged Lambeſſa farm for corn, which they ſeized and paid for; but in ſearching for the corn, one of their company filched a couple of ſilver ſpoons, which were ſoon miſſed, and application made to the ringleaders to have them returned; theſe men, with a frankneſs not to be expected, inſiſted on an immediate ſearch of all their companions, in order to diſcover the thief, who being ſoon detected, they cauſed him to be ſtript, and ſcourged to ſuch a degree that he took to his bed, and it was thought would hardly recover.

22d. Their majeſties (accompanied by their royal highneſſes the prince and princeſs of Brunſwick) were pleaſed to honour the incorporated ſociety of artiſts of Great Britain with their preſence, at the great room in Spring Gardens; and expreſſed their ſatisfaction in obſerving the ſeveral genuine performances exhibited there, and the preſent flouriſhing ſtate of the polite arts among their ſubjects.

The following report of the ſtate of the city hoſpitals was laid before the Governors.

Chriſt's Hoſpital.

Children put forth apprentices, &c. laſt year, ten whereof had been inſtructed in the mathematics,	159
Buried the laſt year,	17
Remaining in this hoſpital,	873

St. Bartholomew's.

Cured and diſcharged laſt year,	3745
Out-patients relieved,	3100
Truſſes given by the hoſpital to	11
Buried this year,	349
Remaining under cure,	400
Ditto out-patients,	141
Total,	7746

St. Thomas's.

In-patients cured and diſcharged,	3245
Out-patients, ditto	3797
Buried this year,	301
Remaining under cure,	470
Out-patients, ditto,	236
Total,	8049

Bridewell Hoſpital.

Vagrants, &c. relieved and diſcharged,	461
Maintained in ſeveral trades, &c.	76

Beth-

Bethlem Hoſpital.

Admitted in this hoſpital	195
Cured,	172
Buried,	44
Remaining under cure,	251

A gentleman in Hamilton-ſtreet, Hyde-park-corner, ſtabbed himſelf with his ſword in ſeveral parts of his breaſt; and afterwards pulled out his pen-knife, cut his throat from ear to ear, and immediately expired. It ſeems the cauſe of his ſo doing was, his finding himſelf beginning to be ſeized with a canine madneſs, in conſequence of his having been bit by a mad dog about five weeks before, and to prevent his growing worſe, or doing miſchief to others, he thought proper to diſpatch himſelf in the above manner.

26th. The concerto at the Thuilleries in Paris, was interrupted by a tragical accident, which has occaſioned much converſation. Mr. H—y, an Engliſh gentleman, having taken offence at a French officer's manner of talking to ſome ladies that ſat next him, made uſe of ſome rough language, which the officer reſenting, gave a ſign for the Engliſh gentleman to follow him out. In croſſing the benches, the Engliſhman ſtruck the officer with his fiſt, and the officer inſtantly drew his ſword, and ran the Engliſhman through the body. The wound, however, was not mortal; and the French in general ſeem to be ſorry that it was not, as the example of ſtriking a perſon in a royal palace ought, according to their way of thinking, to be puniſhed with inſtant death. The gentleman, was, however, taken up, and carried to the Baſtile, where his wound has been ſince cured, and at the inſtance of the Britiſh ambaſſador, he has been releaſed, and conveyed by order of court to the frontiers of France next England, and the French officer enjoined not to depart the kingdom in a limited time.

A machine of a new conſtruction, for the more expeditious and exact ſawing of timber, is now erecting in a timber-yard near Limehouſe; it is to be worked by wind, and is ſaid to be the firſt of the kind erected in this kingdom.

28th. At the ſeſſions at Guild-hall, John young was tried for illegally confining Henry Soppitt, a ſailor, at a lock-up-houſe in Chancery-lane, with a deſign to ſend him to the Indies. He pleaded guilty; but the court finding the action ſo black againſt him, he was ſent to Wood-ſtreet Compter, till next ſeſſions, when judgment is to be paſſed.

Both houſes of parliament met, purſuant to their laſt prorogation.

As a waggon load of veal was coming to town from Sudbury in Suffolk, deſtined for the London markets, the mob ſeized and ſold it for two pence per pound to the poor people, when they paid the owners the money received, returned them the cloths the veal was wrapped up in, and went quietly home to their habitations.

The King of Denmark having lately ſent a preſent to the unhap-

py family of Calas, together with a letter to Monſ. de Voltaire upon the ſubject, received the following anſwer from that learned man:

"Sire; The letter which your majeſty was pleaſed to honour me with, drew from me tears of tenderneſs and joy. Your majeſty ſets a great example very early. Your benevolence ſpreads into countries almoſt unknown to the reſt of the world, and you make all your ſubjects who come within the hearing of your benevolent generoſity. We muſt travel into the north to learn to think and feel. If my weakneſs and bodily complaints would permit me to follow the emotions of my heart. I would throw myſelf at your majeſty's feet. When my imagination was alert, Sire, I ſhould have made too many verſes in anſwer to your charming proſe. Pardon the dying efforts of a man who is not able to expreſs the ſentiments which your goodneſs inſpires him with. I wiſh your majeſty as much happineſs as you will have real glory.

I have the honour to be, &c."

They write from Chemnitz in Hungary, that ſome perſons of Frauenmarck, in the county of Honten, having chaſed for ſome time a wild boar, and having followed it into the mountains, farther perhaps than they had ever penetrated before, they ſaw on the ſnow the veſtiges of a human creature, which they followed, and which led them to a cavern, where, to their great aſtoniſhment, they found a young girl quite naked, very plump, of a deep brown colour, and to appearance from fifteen to eighteen years of age. At firſt ſhe ſet up cries, but wept not. She gazed afterwards with ſurpriſe on thoſe round her, and ſuffered herſelf at laſt to be led away by them. They carried her to the hoſpital of Carpſen, a little royal town, in the county of Atſal, near Chemnitz, where they cloathed her, and made her take nouriſhment. Hitherto ſhe has conſtantly refuſed all the dreſſed meats which have been laid before her, and ſhe feeds only upon raw victuals, the rinds of trees, and other things of the like nature.

Paris, April 20. By a report made by M. de Roquemont, commandant of the city guard, concerning the manner in which the muſqueteers lately treated the Guet, the marſhals of France have ordered, that the muſqueteer, who was ſo grievouſly wounded, ſhall be broke, and declared incapable of ſerving the king, and be impriſoned four years. The other muſqueteers concerned in that affair have been broke, and condemned to one or two years impriſonment.

30th. A fire broke out in a ſaw-pit in the timber-yard of Mr. Juſtice Quarrel at Redriff, and the flames catching the timber, a dreadful conflagration enſued, which conſumed ten dwelling-houſes, with vaſt quantities of timber, ſheds, and out-buildings.

At the anniverſary meeting of the truſtees of the London hoſpital, the collection at church and at the hall, amounted to 1336 l. 3s. The ſermon was preached by the biſhop of Glouceſter.

We

We are ſorry to take notice, that the aſſembly of New-York have refuſed to provide barracks, fuel, &c. for the troops quartered in that city, agreeable to an act paſſed for that purpoſe laſt year, by the parliament of Great Britain; a refuſal which, ſhould they perſiſt in it, may be productive of the moſt diſagreeable conſequences to that province.

The above-mentioned act has been complied with by the aſſembly of Philadelphia.

Lieut. Gen. Baron de Goltz, knight of the Ruſſian order of St. Alexander Newſki, and Marſhal of the confederation of the Diſſidents for Poland and Poliſh Pruſſia, died at Thorn of a violent fever, and his brother, Major General Baron de Goltz, Staroſle of Graudent, is elected Marſhal of the confederation in his room.

Died, at Hales Owen, Mrs. Elizabeth Maſon, aged 104 years.

Louts Margotten in France, aged 105 years.

Rev. Mr. Paterſon at Footſcray, aged 100 years.

Mrs. Mary Tufton at Namptwich, aged 109 years.

John King at Stratford upon Avon, aged 105 years.

Baroneſs Paſſerini at Rome, aged 108 years.

M A Y.

1ſt. The Morocco ambaſſador had his audience of leave of his majeſty, and a ſhip of war is ordered to be in readineſs to carry him home.

This day the ceremony of the coronation of their Daniſh majeſties was performed in the chapel of Chriſtianburg at Copenhagen, by the Biſhop of Sieland. On that occaſion his majeſty aſſumed the motto *Gloria ex amore patriæ*. My glory is in the love of my country. As the kings of Denmark do not receive the crown from any other hands than their own, the ceremony of putting it on is performed by themſelves.

Collections were made in the ſeveral churches of Dublin, for the relief of the induſtrious poor, which amounted in the whole to 2738l. 14s. 5d.

2d. The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when ſeventeen priſoners were capitally convicted; among theſe were Gormon and Johnſon, ſailors, for the murder of the man at Holloway. Some favourable circumſtances appearing in favour of Johnſon, he was reſpited; one of the accomplices was admitted king's evidence; and another, againſt whom there was not ſufficient evidence for the murder, was condemned for a robbery.

At this ſeſſion, forty-five were ordered to be tranſported for ſeven years, two for fourteen years, two were branded, and two privately whipped.

A farmer at Morton near York, on finding fault with a ſervant boy for diſobeying his orders, gave him a puſh from him, whereby he fell backward, and his head pitching on a ſtone his ſkull was fractured, and he died immediately. The farmer, ſhocked at the dreadful accident, next morning cut the arteries of both his arms, ſo that his life is deſpaired of. The coroner's jury that ſat on the body brought in their verdict accidental death.

The lady of Admiral O'Hara was terribly burnt, by an accident of her ruffle taking fire by the flame of a candle; and her ſon, Capt. O'Hara, was much ſcorched by endeavouring to extinguiſh the flame.

An ingenious experiment was made by the Rev. Mr. Gainſbrough, before ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, pointing out a cheap and eaſy method of turning any wheel-plough into a drill-plough, adapted to all kinds of ſeeds and all proportions; which met with general applauſe.

The culture of Buck or French Wheat, is ſtrongly recommended as exceedingly profitable to the farmer. It will thrive well in ſandy or gravelly ſoils; rolled and ploughed in, when green, it makes an excellent manure for three years; reaped and threſhed, it produces great increaſe, affords a delicious food for pigs, pigeons, and poultry; and, by mixing it with oats, it cleanſes and ſmooths the coats of horſes; in ſhort, in poor land nothing anſwers ſo well. The time of ſowing it, is in May.

4th. Francis Gormon, for the murder of Thomas Griffiths, was executed purſuant to his ſentence. A young woman with a wen upon her neck, was lifted up while he was hanging, and had the wen rubbed with the dead man's hand, from a ſuperſtitious notion that it would effect a cure.

The collection at the rehearſal of the muſic for the feaſt of the ſons of the clergy amounted to 212l. 10s. 6d. the leaſt that has been known for many years.

Letters from Baſſeterre, in St. Chriſtopher's, dated Feb. 12, ſay, "Capt. Dyer, of the Anna Tereſa packet, who arrived here a few days ago, informs us that an inſurrection of the negroes has happened at the iſland of Grenada, whereby a body of them, to the number of 600 or 700, who had chiefly deſerted from the French inhabitants, had taken poſſeſſion of ſome inacceſſible mountains, from whence they made frequent ſallies, and committed terrible devaſtations upon their maſters, many of whom they had killed. When Capt. Dyer came away, General Melvill had ſent a party of 40 men, with one cohorn, to endeavour to ſuppreſs them, but with what ſucceſs Capt. Dyer had not time to learn."

There has been alſo an inſurrection of the negroes lately in Jamaica, which was ſoon quelled; but not till they had inhumanly murdered ſome whites. We are ſorry to ſay, that their cruelties were retaliated in a manner diſgraceful to human nature; ſuch of them as were taken, were burnt alive by a ſlow fire, beginning at the feet, and burning upwards; which the wretches bore with amazing reſolution.

7th. Was held the anniverſary meeting of the ſons of the clergy. The ſermon was preached by the Rev. Dr. Eyre, and the collection amounted to 165l. 10s. 2d. At the hall to 490l. 16s. 8d.

A moſt barbarous and inhuman murder was committed at Anderſton, a village near Glaſgow, by Johanna Dougal, on her own daughter, between eight and nine years of age. We are informed that

that ſhe had been in terms of marriage with a man who had made ſome objections to her having a child; and therefore, to get rid of the poor innocent creature, led her out to the fields, and, behind a hedge, cut her throat to the neck-bone with a common table-knife, in a moſt ſhocking manner: ſome people being near, and a herd-boy ſeeing her at a diſtance, ſhe was purſued and apprehended; and blood appearing on her hands, petticoat, and apron, ſhe at once confeſſed the horrid deed: the inſtrument, with which ſhe did the cruel action, was found in the hedge near where the child was diſcovered, juſt in the laſt contortion of life; and it appeared that the poor girl had made ſome ſmall reſiſtance, as her left hand was cut quite acroſs the fingers. The wretched mother was committed to priſon.

A ſugar-baker, in Cheapſide, was put into freſh earth up to the chin, in which ſituation he remained ſix hours, by way of remedy for an inveterate ſcurvy, that had baffled the ſkill of eminent phyſicians.

At the herbalizing feaſt of the company of apothecaries, Mr. Latham recommended the Lamium Album, or white nettle, to the notice of his brethren, as containing properties that might be extremely uſeful in pharmacy.

Advice was received here, that the Lindenhoff, a Dutch Eaſt-Indiaman, had been ſet on fire by lightning, on the coaſt of India, and entirely conſumed. The captain and 87 others ſaved themſelves in their boats; but 40 periſhed in the flames, or were drowned.

Extract of a letter from Kingſton in Jamaica, dated the 31ſt of January.

The 26th inſtant came to anchor in this port, the ſloop George, captain Jeremiah Rogers, bound from Halifax to New-York, blown off the coaſt by ſtreſs of weather. Being obliged to put into Porto Rico the 15th inſtant, having only a few biſkets and gallons of water on board; upon ſending the boat on ſhore to get relief, no notice being taken of the ſignal made by the ſloop, the mate and ſailors in the boat were detained as priſoners, and the boat was ſent back by their own people, commanded by a lieutenant of a guarda coſta, who boarded the veſſel, and made the captain and all on board priſoners, with a ſtrong guard on deck: they then went into the cabbin, and opened trunks and boxes belonging to the paſſengers, and carried away ſundry effects and money, as alſo goods belonging to the veſſel. On the 17th inſtant, being under way, a Spaniſh frigate brought the ſloop to anchor, firſt firing a ſhot to leeward, and ſent the boat with eight or nine hands armed, commanded by a petty officer, who ordered the captain and paſſengers to go on board the Spaniſh veſſel; and, during the time the captain and paſſengers were on board the Spaniſh veſſel, his people were committing many acts of piracy and barbarity on board the ſloop, and would not ſuffer any of the people belonging to the ſloop to hale the ſhip; and after complaining to the captain of the frigate, no redreſs was obtained, but a peremptory demand was made to ſend on board his veſſel a barrel of mackrel as a paſs. It is to be obſerved

ſerved, that the governor of St. Domingo was on board, who ſaid, 'it was not in his power to give any relief, being only a paſſenger:' it was therefore thought more prudent to leave ſuch an inhoſpitable coaſt, than make any further attempts for relief, having a periſhable cargo on board.—The above account is taken from a copy of the captain's proteſt.

Thomas Mompeſſon, Eſq; bencher in the Middle Temple, died lately. He was the elder brother of Henry Mompeſſon, murdered by robbers in France, in 1723, with Mr. Sebright, and two other Engliſh gentlemen. Mr. Mompeſſon was at firſt wounded, but not mortally, by a piſtol, on which he fell, and might probably have ſurvived, had he not, by looking up too ſoon, been obſerved by the robbers juſt as they were going off, on which they returned, and cut his throat. Mr. Mompeſſon's remains were brought to England, and interred in the family vault of the church-yard of Sundrich, in Kent, with the following inſcription:

M. S.
HENRICI MOMPESSON,
Thomæ Mompeſſon de Durnfold,
in agro Dorſetenſi, Arm.
Filii natu minoris:
Qui tabe pulmonari gravitur affectus,
ad leniores Galliæ Narbonenſis auras
ut unicum quod reſtabat remedium,
perfugere hortatus
Dum iſtuc iter faceret,
Septimo a Portu Iccio lapide
truculenti ſex latrones
imparatum adorti, [ciſſo,
direptis pecuniis jugulogue fœdiſſime diſpro mortuo reliquerunt.
Hoc vulnere,
Cum per 48 horas clanguiſſet,
Spiritum Deo pie reddidit,
Anno Salutis 1723.
Ætatis ſuæ 26.
Cariſſimi (dum vixeret) reliquiæ,
Ex Gallia deportatas,
Hoc tumulo condi curavit
Mœrens frater unicus.
T. M.

16th. The committee of mechanics from the ſociety for promoting arts, &c. in the Strand, attended by appointment at one of the keys near Billingſgate, to ſee the experiment of Mr. Pinchbeck's invention for improving the wheel crane, and for preventing the many fatal accidents which ſo frequently happen in that uſeful and neceſſary machine, without depending in the leaſt on the care of any of the labourers or perſons working therein: when, among many ſevere trials that it underwent, an hogſhead was ſuffered to run amain, and the men to jump out, when the wheel, to the ſurpriſe of many of the ſpectators, ſtopped of itſelf before it had made more than half a revolution. This invention is entirely given to the public, and it is thought will certainly prevent any future accident.

The general aſſembly of the church of Scotland met. On this occaſion, his majeſty's high commiſſioner, the Earl of Glaſgow, made a grand appearance. His grace opened the aſſembly with an elegant ſpeech from the throne, to which the moderator made a very ſuitable return. His majeſty's moſt gracious letter to the aſſembly was then given in by his grace, and read with all due honour and reſpect.

The commiſſioners of the court of requeſts, at Trowbridge, having diſplaced Mr. Pierce, their clerk, for refuſing to receive the monies belonging to the ſuitors of the ſaid court

court, a cauſe, that was commenced by Mr. Pierce, upon his removal, was tried before lord Mansfield, when his lordſhip was of opinion, that the commiſſioners had no power to order Mr. Pierce to receive the ſaid monies; and that they had exceeded their authority in removing him for that cauſe; and a mandamus was thereupon ordered for reſtoring him.

At a ſale of medals in Suffolk-ſtreet, a ſmall gold one of Pompey the Great ſold for 27 guineas.

A number of ſubalterns of the army and marines, on half-pay, aſſembled at the Globe-tavern in the Strand, and deputed lieutenant Carrol to wait on the marquis of Granby and general Conway, to return them thanks for their gracious reception of their application for an augmentation of their allowance.

As one Thomas Haynes in Sherborne was going in ſearch of his ſon (a boy of about eleven years of age) who had been miſſing ſince Tueſday, he was met by a man who told him, that his ſon was found drowned in a ditch near the French priſon; on hearing of which, the father dropped down dead; and, as ſoon as the melancholy news reached the mother, ſhe was ſeized with fits, and it is ſuppoſed ſhe cannot live out the night.

They write from Berlin, that on the 12th the ceremony of the chriſtening was performed at Potzdam, when the new-born princeſs was named Frederick-Charlotte-Ulrique-Catherine. The ſponſors preſent were, the king of Pruſſia, the reigning duke and dutcheſs of Brunſwick, the princes dowager of Pruſſia, princes Wilhelmina, the dowager Margravine of Bareith, prince Henry, (the king of Pruſſia's brother) prince Frederick of Brunſwick, and the empreſs of Ruſſia and queen of Sweden by their proxies.

A letter from Marſeilles gives the following particulars.

"Signior Romanzo, the Corſican courier, has been among us theſe ten days paſt. The duke de ———, having ſaid ſomething very impertinent againſt the Britiſh nation, and particularly againſt a great perſonage, the generous Corſican told him that the Britiſh were a nation of men, and their king the beſt prince in Europe. He ſaid this with ſuch an emphaſis and ſo indignant a look, that the duke thought proper to call him out, and they fought behind the ramparts. The duke was ſeverely wounded, but ſignior Romanzo eſcaped unhurt. This affair has done him great honour with every body. *C'eſt un beau coup cela pour prendre conge*, ſaid a colonel of the *Gens de' Armes*. M. Romanzo is preparing to embark, on his return to Corſica."

20th. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, attended by the duke of Ancaſter and the earl of Denbigh; when the royal aſſent was given to eighteen public bills; among which were,

The bill for raiſing 1,500,000l. by annuities and a lottery, for the ſervice of the preſent year, to be charged on the ſinking fund.

The bill for redeeming certain annuities, in reſpect of navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, and ordnance debentures.

The

The bill for redeeming part of the joint ſtock of annuities, charged by ſeveral additional duties on wines imported, and alſo on cyder and perry.

The bill for granting additional duties on certain linen cloth imported.

The bill to allow the free importation of rice, ſago duſt, and vermicelli, for a limited time, from the American colonies.

The bill for improving and extending the navigation of the river Hull, from Frodingham Beck to Driffield, in the eaſt-riding of Yorkſhire.

The bill to make Codbeck brook navigable from the river Swale to Thirſk in Yorkſhire.

The bill for eſtabliſhing an hoſpital in Cambridge.

The bill to prevent extortion by ſheriffs and bailiffs, in caſes of execution.

The bill for extending the royalty of the city of Edinburgh over certain adjoining lands, &c. and to enable his majeſty to grant letters patent for eſtabliſhing a theatre in Edinburgh.

And alſo to ſeveral road and incloſure bills.

They write from Frankfort on the Mayne, that they had received from Vogelſberg the following account of an obſervation made by two perſons in the night between the 12th and 13th ult. on the latter of which days a ſhock of the earth was felt at Gotha, Caſſel, and Gottingen. Being at midnight in the fields near Ulrickſtein, they perceived the ſky, which had been before very clear, began to be overſpread with clouds, and a violent wind aroſe. About one o'clock, in their return to the town, they obſerved a very thick exhalation, which roſe from the weſt ſide of a meadow, and extended in an oblong form over the whole town, directing its courſe to the north-eaſt; but a mountain prevented them from ſeeing it at a farther diſtance. When they came to Ulrickſtein, they were told there had been three violent ſhocks of the earth felt there, of which themſelves had perceived no ſign, except the cloud juſt mentioned.

The ſtage waggon that goes from Louth to Lincoln, in which were paſſengers Mrs. Cherry and her daughter, was overturned near Claybridge, by which unhappy accident Miſs Cherry, the daughter, was killed on the ſpot; and Mrs. Cherry ſo violently bruiſed, that what with the loſs of her daughter, and the hurt ſhe received, it is thought ſhe cannot long ſurvive. The unfortunate Miſs Cherry's life ſeems to have been attended with a ſeries of accidents; ſome time ago ſhe narrowly eſcaped drowning by falling into a well; and by another misfortune ſhe had both her arms and legs broke at the ſame time.

A riotous mob of weavers aſſembled on the turnpike road near Corke to intercept ſome cars laden with goods from Dublin, when they burnt, cut, plundered, and otherwiſe deſtroyed linens, poplins, ſilk hankerchiefs, &c. to the amount of about 700l.

A poor houſekeeper in Edinburgh, being deficient in rent, was ſeized upon by his landlord, his goods ſold when from home, and the door locked againſt him when he returned. The common people

people, being informed of this act of oppreſſion, aſſembled about the landlord's houſe, broke open the door, brought every thing moveable into the ſtreet, ſet fire to the pile, and burnt the whole to aſhes, not ſparing money, notes, nor even the poor bird that hung in a cage, having execrated all the curſed things belonging to ſo mercileſs a wretch.

Farmer Matthews was found barbarouſly murdered near the Troopers on Broadway-hill. His ſkull was fractured, and many large wounds and bruiſes about his head and neck. A baker in the neighbourhood of Cambden in Glouceſterſhire is ſuſpected and apprehended, and it is thought waylaid and committed the murder as the farmer was returning from Eveſham market, where he had received near 200 l.

They have had a violent thunder ſtorm at Mentz, which broke through the roof of the cathedral church, and ſet it on fire; and the whole roof was ſoon deſtroyed, and the bells melted. The damage is eſtimated at two millions of florins.

22d. At a court of common-council held at Guildhall, a propoſal from the lords of the treaſury was laid before the court for taking Greſham-college, in order to pull it down and build on that ground an exciſe office. The plan was agreed to, and a committee is to be appointed next Tueſday, in order to conſider of carrying it into execution.

As ſome workmen were digging in the road which is now repairing on Clerkenwell-Green, they found ſeveral coins and medals, among which were, a ſhilling of Charles I, a ſmall copper medal of Charles II. the legend QUATUOR MARIA VINDICO; a baſe ſhilling of king James II. dated 1689; a ſmall copper medal, legend round the head CONST . . . . POLIS; another ſmall medal with a man's head on on one ſide, and a woman's on the reverſe; a ſmall copper piece, a head on one ſide, on the reverſe MLNI. DVX; a ſmall copper coin, on one ſide HISP. RE . . . reverſe, DOMINVS MEVM ADIVTO . . . a German coin, with STAST. OSNABRVCK on one ſide, on the reverſe V; together with ſome other German ones of baſe metal, the legends of which are moſtly illegible.

The plan for the diſpoſal of children out of the Foundling hoſpital in the courſe of laſt year was ſo well received, that a farther ſupply of 28,000 l. is granted for the ſupport of thoſe remaining for the preſent year; and alſo 4,500 l. to apprentice children at a proper age.

Fourteen Spaniſh veſſels, eſcorted by three xebecks, arrived at Civita Vecchia with the Jeſuits from the provinces of Arragon and Catalonia, amounting to 570 in number. A courier was immediately diſpatched to Rome, from whence expreſs order was received not to permit them to land. In conſequence of this order, the governor of the town poſted ſoldiers, and planted batteries of cannon at ſeveral places; and theſe diſpoſitions being made known to the commander of the convoy, they ſet ſail for Corſica, where the republic of Genoa has offered to receive them.

An

27th. An expreſs arrived at Berlin from Protzen, where young prince Henry (brother to the Prince of Pruſſia) lay ill of the ſmall-pox, with the melancholy news, that the prince died on the 26th, at eight at night. It is not poſſible to deſcribe the affliction of the whole family, or the general conſternation it occaſions, as his Highneſs was extremely beloved.

28th. The fortreſs of the iſland of Capraira ſurrendered to the Corſicans, after a blockade of an hundred and two days: the garriſon, which conſiſted of 30 ſoldiers and two or three officers, had for many days lived upon bread and water; ſo that they were all much emaciated: they were treated with the greateſt humanity by the Corſican officers, and were permitted by their capitulation to go to Genoa. Among other things that were found in the fortreſs, there were four pieces of braſs battery cannon, and ſeven ſmaller pieces, with a large quantity of bullets, powder, and other military ſtores. Three hundred Corſicans have been left in garriſon there; the reſt were immediately ſent back to Corſica. Lond. Gaz.

29th. At the annual feaſt of a city company held this day, it has always been uſual to have green peas; which were this year with ſuch difficulty obtained, that ſixteen quarts coſt ſixteen guineas.

The golden medal given annually by Dr. Hope, botanical profeſſor at Edinburgh, was adjudged to Robert Urquhart of that univerſity for his collection of plants.

The Empreſs conſort died at Vienna this morning about nine o'clock. The ſmall-pox was of ſo very malevolent a kind, that from the firſt moment there was ſcarce a glimpſe of hope. She herſelf was ſoon acquainted with the danger, and met it with the moſt exemplary piety, patience, reſignation, and fortitude. Her death was very eaſy, without ſtruggle or convulſion, ſo that thoſe about her ſcarce knew when ſhe expired. All the imperial family, and the whole court, are under the greateſt affliction on this melancholy occaſion.

According to accounts from France, the froſts have been lately ſo ſevere in that country, as to have deſtroyed all the buds of the vines in many provinces, as well as the fruits which are beginning to form, and even the leaves of the mulberry trees; which laſt loſs is the more conſiderable, as the ſilkworms were nearly all hatched, and on that account obliged to be deſerted.

Letters from Martinico of the 4th of April, by way of South Carolina, adviſe, that the effects of the hurricane, which happened there in Auguſt laſt, continue to be felt very ſeverely through the whole iſland: and that the French king had done every thing in his power to alleviate the misfortunes of his ſubjects there, by granting every indulgence that could be wiſhed, and ordering large quantities of beef and other proviſions to be tranſported and diſtributed among the poorer ſort; but that there was an evil which they could not overcome, the want of caſh, the iſland having been ſo drained of ſpecie by foreign veſſels, that an ordonnance was ſhortly to be iſſued,

iſſued, requiring the maſters of all ſuch veſſels, in future, to give ſecurity that they will take in payment for their cargoes nothing but melaſſes, ſugars, and other goods.

The legiſlature of Rhode iſland have paſſed an act, calling in and ſinking all the money-bills of that colony emitted in March, April, and May, 1762, and empowering George Hazard, Eſq; with the general treaſurer, in lieu of the bills ſo brought in, to iſſue their own notes, properly printed and decorated, to the owners of the bills brought in, payable in ſeven years from the date of the reſpective bills. And that the notes, given in lieu of the ſaid bills, ſhall bear intereſt, till the time limited for their return, at the rate of ſix per cent. per ann. That a tax ſhall be levied for the diſcharge of the ſaid bills, and that it ſhall be death to counterfeit them. The form is that of a common promiſſory note, with intereſt. None more than 100l. nor leſs than 6s.

A letter from New-York, dated April 4, has the following depoſition of William Harry, taken before Governor de Windt, of St. Euſtatia, 'That he ſailed from Briſtol in June, 1765, on board the ſloop William, for the coaſt of Africa, John Weſtcot, maſter, where they continued twelve months, purchaſing ſlaves for a brig, and themſelves, and afterwards proceeded for St. Kitt's; that, ſoon after they left the coaſt. the captain, for ſome reaſons, beat and knocked down a ſeaman named Stephen Porter; that in the night, between eleven and twelve, the ſaid Porter and Richard Hancock murdered the captain and mate, with a broad axe, when aſleep; that the ſloop was afterwards caſt away on the iſle of May, and the ſlaves were ſold to the Portugueſe for 50 dollars a head.'

There are now four brigs, from forty to ſeventy tons, and ſixteen armed-deck cutters, on the lake Ontario; by this means the navigation of the great lakes, and a mart of trade, will ſoon be eſtabliſhed, equal to that of the Caſpian ſea.

There is now living in a village near Lead-hills, about three miles from Edinburgh, a man named John Taylor, aged 130 years. He was born in England, bred to the buſineſs of a miner, in which capacity he worked there ſome years before he came to Scotland, and has a diſcharge to ſhow from the earl of Lauderdale, when the Scots mint was given up at the Union. He lately walked two Engliſh miles from his houſe to be preſent at the chriſtening of his grand-child, and after ſpending ſome time in merriment on the occaſion, returned home the ſame evening without any aſſiſtance.

Died, John Mitchell, at Great Bircham in Norfolk, aged 100 years.

Alexander Crawford, at Fermanagh in Ireland, aged 99 years.

Charles Lapiere, a diamond-merchant, aged 93 years.

Captain Braniſtone, formerly a commander in the royal navy, aged 90 years.

Rene de Triſſonier, at Bouchain in France, aged 102 years.

Mrs. Corbyn, at Worceſter, aged 98 years. She was an eminent preacher among the quakers.

Henry

Henry Reilton, Esq; at Epsom, aged 97 years.

Mrs. Collier at Farringdon, aged 98 years.

Robert Cumming in the Royal Hospital at Chelsea, aged 116 Years.

Edward Boswell, carpenter, at Oxford, one of seven that have died in that city since February last, whose ages together amount to 616.

JUNE.

At the sessions at Guildhall, 1st. capt. Young, who was convicted last sessions for illegally confining Henry Soppet at a lock-up-house in Chancery-lane, was sentenced to suffer imprisonment in Newgate for 12 months; and to give security for his good behaviour for two years, himself in 100l. and two in 50l. each. One Edward Fielding, for charging a young fellow with a robbery who refused to enlist into the East-India company's service, received the like sentence. And Robert Gow and John Ratcliffe for attempting to force a young woman at an inn near Fleet-market, were found guilty, and are to receive sentence next sessions. While the court was sitting, an over-drove ox, entering Guildhall, threw the whole court into consternation; but, not liking his company, he turned about, and ran back again without doing any mischief. A gentleman, passing by at the same time and seeing the croud, asked what was the matter. 'Nothing,' replied a fellow humorously, 'but an ox that is just run into Guildhall in a passion, to complain to my lord mayor of the inhumanity of his drivers'

A cause came on to be tried before Lord Mansfield, in which a poor-broom-maker was plaintiff, and the toll-master of Hampton-bridge, defendant, who had seized the plaintiff's horse for toll after he had rode him through the river, and had sold him to pay himself the penny and costs. After a long trial the jury brought in a verdict for the plaintiff.

The marquis de Courtenveaux, honorary member of the R. A. of Paris, embarked on board a frigate for Havre, to make trial of some instruments, designed to facilitate the determination of the longitude by sea, and particularly the watch of the Sieur le Roi, and the megametre, or grand measurer of the Sieur de Charnieres. The Sieurs Pengre and Messier accompany the marquis in the enterprize.

The guardian of the Cordeliers, at Sisteron, after having set fire to his convent in eight different places, armed himself with a knife and a cleaver, with which he murdered the cook of the house, whom he wounded in nine different places. He afterwards ran after two religious, with an intent to murder them also; but one of them made his escape in his shirt out of a two pair of stairs window, and the other found means to conceal himself. When the alarm of fire drew people to the convent, the guardian was found in his bed-chamber; and, in order to raise suspicion of other persons, he wounded himself very slightly in the throat, and had set fire to the curtains of his bed. After undergo-

ing

going ſeveral interrogatories, to which he would give no anſwer, he was ſent to the hoſpital to be taken care of, but in the night he made his eſcape.

A moſt terrible ſtorm of thunder and lightning fell upon the houſe of Richard Rylance, in Church-ſtreet, Ormſkirk, carried away the chimney and ſlates from the roof, the windows of the third ſtory, ſhattered the ſide of the building, and melted the lead of the lower windows. A ball of fire traverſed the room of a lying-in woman, but providentially did her no hurt.

The conſtables at Briſtol diſcovered, concealed in a box, in the houſe of one Langford, a night-watchman, a girl about 18 years of age, almoſt ſtarved, and quite naked. It appeared that ſhe had been a lodger in the houſe near 20 months, but had not been confined to the narrow limits of this box (which is about 40 inches long, and 18 broad) more than eight months, during which time ſhe has often been without ſuſtenance for three days together. The poſition ſhe was obliged to lie in has ſo contracted her limbs, that they are quite uſeleſs. They alſo found a young woman quite naked, with only ſhavings to lie on; who being with child, had fled to this place for ſhelter. Both theſe deplorable creatures were carried to St. Peter's hoſpital. Langford, his wife, and daughter, were ſecured, but the man pleading ignorance, and the girl confirming it, he was releaſed.

Was committed to the Gate-houſe, Alexander Dunn, for violently beating and threatening to murder a poſt-boy who had juſt brought him out of the country. This is the perſon who was ſome time confined in the King's Bench, charged with the intention of aſſaſſinating Mr. Wilkes.

Their majeſties having honoured the ſociety of artiſts of Great Britain with their preſence, at the exhibition in Spring Gardens, his majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed to order them the ſum of one hundred pounds.

This morning, about three o'clock, as the Plymouth ſtage-waggon was going out of town, it took fire in Fleet-ſtreet, occaſioned by a bottle of aqua-fortis breaking againſt a bottle of ſpirits of wine, and ſetting fire to the ſame: By timely aſſiſtance it was ſoon extinguiſhed; after doing about 30 l. damage, and the waggon purſued its journey.

It began yeſterday to ſnow in Derbyſhire, which continued the whole day, and part of this, ſo that the ſnow was above half a yard deep. 4th.

An uncommon inundation happened in the road between Newington and Clapham, occaſioned by the heavy rains that had been falling for three days before; the waters collected in the road meeting with a high tide (wind N. by W. moon's firſt quarter) running up Vauxhall creek, ſwelled to ſuch a degree, that they ſoon covered Kennington Common, and entering ſome low grounds, (on the ſouth ſide,) deſtroyed the brick-works, and did other damage to the amount of 200 l. The current making its way S. E. and over Camberwell road by Wallworth common to the Thames; a poor woman happening to be on Kennington common before the height of the flood, got on the bank

above the turnpike-houſe, and a working man in the gardens juſt by, going to aſſiſt her over the road, in ſtepping off the bank, her feet ſlipped, and ſhe falling, pulled the poor man into the current with her; and both were carried thro' an arch under the turnpike-houſe, but two feet wide, and three deep. The woman was ſoon diſcovered by her cloaths, but the man was carried forty yards down before he was ſeen. However, both being taken into a houſe, they ſoon recovered.

The magiſtrates of Edinburgh conferred upon Mr. James Craig, architect, a gold medal, with the freedom of their city, in a ſilver box, as a reward of his merit, for having deſigned the beſt plan of a new town to be built in that neighbourhood.

M. de Larrey, privy-counſellor and ſecretary to the prince of Orange, ſets out for Berlin to-morrow, in order to ſettle every thing relative to the marriage of his ſerene highneſs with the princeſs Wilhelmina, ſiſter to the prince Royal of Pruſſia.

Orders were received at Chatham to take his majeſty's ſhip Monmouth, of 64 guns, to pieces, being judged unfit for further ſervices. This ſhip was eſteemed the beſt ſailor in the navy, had a principal ſhare in the actions fought by the admirals Anſon and Hawke, when commanded by the brave admiral Harriſon, in the war preceding the laſt; was in the late war in ſeveral actions commanded by the captains Gardiner and Hervey, the former of whom was killed on board, when engaged ſingly with the Foudroyant, of 80 guns. She never gave chace to any ſhip that ſhe did not come up with.

As ſome workmen were employed in pulling down part of Cundover Hall, near Shrewſbury, they found in removing ſome ſtones in the vault, an iron box of about 20 inches long, and 14 broad, in which were contained ſeveral very curious ancient medals, together with a braſs ſtatue, abour 16 inches high, which is ſuppoſed to be the ſtatue of ſome heathen god.

The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey, when three received ſentence of death; one to be tranſported for fourteen years; 36 for ſeven years; and three to be whipt. 6th.

Mount Veſuvius began to throw out fire from its ſummit; an omen of an approaching eruption.

There was a commotion at Troyes in France, the conſequence of which might have been very fatal. It was occaſioned by the refuſal of the officers of police to permit the bakers to raiſe the price of bread, though corn is grown dearer. A woman took occaſion from hence to raiſe by her clamours a troop of mutinous people, who ſuſpecting ſome individuals of carrying on a trade in corn, and profiting conſiderably by it, repaired tumultuouſly to their houſes, broke open their doors, and deſtroyed the furniture of their dwellings. Such as ſeemed inclined to oppoſe them, were ill-treated; and, it is even ſaid, that three or four were killed. They threatened to ſet fire to the city; but the town officers took ſuch juſt meaſures, that the burgeſſes in arms gave a check to part of the inſurgents, ſeveral of whom had diſguiſed themſelves like women, and diſperſed the reſt.

By a letter directed to Mr. Charles

Charles Gibbs of Charter-houſe-ſquare, a correſpondent of that gentleman aſſerts, that he has diſcovered a method of ſquaring the circle, which has hitherto baffled the efforts of the greateſt mathematicians.

9th. A ſubſcription was opened for carrying Mr. Brindley's plan into execution for making a navigable canal from Birmingham through the principal coalworks, to join the Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire canals.

A fire happened at Beer, near Blandford in Dorſetſhire, which in an hour and a half deſtroyed above 14 houſes. In the ſame week was a fire at Ower, near Dorcheſter, which conſumed eight houſes.

About three weeks ago a bricklayer's labourer at Marybone ſold a woman whom he had cohabited with for ſeveral years, to a fellow-workman for a quarter guinea and a gallon of beer. The workman went off with the purchaſe, and ſhe has ſince had the good fortune to have a legacy of 200 l. and ſome plate left her by a deceaſed uncle in Devonſhire. The parties were married laſt Friday.

10th. Five of the malefactors who were condemned at the laſt ſeſſions but one at the Old Bailey, were executed at Tyburn.

16th. Came on at Guildhall, before Lord Mansfield, and a ſpecial jury of merchants, a trial between Meſſrs. Dalbiacks, ſilk-weavers, of Spital-ſquare, plaintiffs, and the proprietors of a patent manufactory for painting ſilk, defendants: the cauſe of action was to recover a ſum of money for damage on 91 pieces of ſilk which the defendants had ſpoiled in painting, containing 5767 yards and upwards; when, after an hearing of ſix hours, the jury, without going out of court, found a verdict for the plaintiffs of 2633 l. 18 s. being the full value of the ſilks.

17th. A cauſe came on in the Common-pleas, wherein a gentleman of Norwich was plaintiff, and the commiſſioners of one of the London fire offices defendants: The action was, that the gentleman had formerly inſured his houſe at Norwich in the ſaid office to the amount of 500 l. and at the time of the riots there, his houſe was wilfully ſet on fire, and burnt, on which he applied to the office to make good the inſurance, which they refuſed, as it was not deſtroyed by accident; and after a hearing of ſeveral hours, a verdict of 400 l. was given in favour of the plaintiff; but a point of law ariſing, it is to be decided by the opinion of the twelve judges.

The eſtates of the late Percival Lewis, Eſq; at Tooting, were ſold by auction by Mr. Langford and ſon for 24,925 l.

The maid-ſervant of one Mr. Wilſon, with his child in her arms, went to view ſome ſheep waſhed in the Tweed from Kelſo-bridge; when, forgetful of her truſt, by a ſudden motion, the child ſprung out of her arms from the lodging, and dropt down into the water. The young woman, in order to ſave the child, inſtantly flung herſelf over after it, and both periſhed in the Tweed.

At Covent-Garden market common cherries, and but few of them ripe, ſold at 4s. a pound. Three

years ago, at this ſeaſon, finer cherries were ſold at 2d. a pound.

Laſt week at a chriſtening at Widaker, near Whitehaven, of the 21ſt child of Mr. Wright, by the ſame woman, the company came from 21 pariſhes, and the entertainment conſiſted of 21 pieces of beef, 21 legs of mutton and lamb, 21 gallons of brandy, three times 21 gallons of ſtrong ale, three times 21 fowls roaſted and boiled, 21 pies, beſides ſeveral hams, a great number of puddings, &c. &c.

At a court of common-council held at Guildhall, the freedom of this city was voted to be preſented to the right hon. Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer, in a gold box, for acknowledgment of his kind and ſucceſsful endeavours to ſerve them in their application to parliament for the ſeveral improvements to be made in the metropolis.

At the ſame court alſo a motion was made, that a piece of plate of 200 guineas value be preſented to deputy John Paterſon, Eſq; as a mark of the court's gratitude for the many ſervices rendered the corporation by that gentleman, but more eſpecially for his late excellent plan which was adopted by the city of London, and now lies ready for the royal aſſent, having paſſed both houſes of parliament.

The report made laſt December, relating to London-Bridge, was taken into conſideration; when Mr. Milne, the ſurveyor, being examined, it was after a long debate agreed, that the proprietors of the London-bridge waterworks, ſhould be allowed the fifth arch of the ſaid bridge, agreeable to the terms contained in the city lands report, but under the expreſs conditions, that ſhould this grant be hereafter found prejudicial to the navigation of the river, the city ſhould have liberty to revoke their grant, upon paying the ſaid proprietors their whole expence in occupying the ſaid arch.

The empreſs queen, who had got the ſmall pox by her cloſe attendance on her daughter-in-law, the empreſs conſort, is now entirely out of danger.

One Mr. Nathaniel Jardine, a linen draper at Cambridge, was ſeized with a fit, as he ſat upon a bench by his door, from which he fell, and received a violent cut upon his head, that rendered him ſenſeleſs; he was immediately blooded, which ſomewhat recovered him, and he was carried, by his own deſire, to to the houſe of Mr. Clay, grocer, in Trompington ſtreet, where he died on Wedneſday morning. His brother, a few months ago, was taken much in the ſame manner, but died inſtantly. There is ſomething ſo ſingular in the lives of theſe two brothers, that we ſhould not do juſtice to our readers, if we paſſed it by unnoticed.—They were about ſixty years old, had lived together from their infancy, and had, for more than forty years, kept a linen-draper's ſhop: during which time, we are informed, they never had their houſe cleaned but once, which was when their mother died, whom, to ſave expences, they laid out themſelves; they ſeldom admitted any perſon beyond their ſhop or ſtore room; and it is aſſerted that they had no bed, but uſed to lie upon ſome old packing cloths, that their goods came in: And ſo continually diſturbed, leſt any of their effects ſhould be ſtolen, that they frequently watched alternately. So

mi-

miſerable were they, in order to amaſs wealth, they did not even allow themſelves the common neceſſaries of life, not a whole joint of meat having been known to enter the houſe for twenty years paſt. Thus pinched for want of ſuſtenance within, and through neglect in their linen and apparel, peſtered with vermin without, no wonder they always carried a very meagre aſpect. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that if a publican or other perſon laid out a few ſhillings with them, they would enquire their place of abode, and frequently go a mile or two to fetch a quart of beer, yet cautious that they ſhould not be ſeen, leſt others might be offended. On the death of their father they found upwards of 1000 guineas concealed in his bed; and at the deceaſe of the firſt brother, the ſurvivor found a conſiderable ſum of money that had been ſecreted from him. It is not certainly known what he died poſſeſſed of, but it is generally ſuppoſed from 6 to 8000 l. the whole of which, except a legacy of 20 l. he has left by will to the above Mr. Clay; who, it ſeems, had lately ſhewn him ſome civilities, by now and then ſending him a comfortable dinner, &c. The deceaſed had often declared, he did not know of any relations.

Letters juſt received from Rome mention, that an expreſs was arrived there from Civita Vecchia, with advice, that, fifteen Catalan veſſels, eſcorted by three armed xebecks, were arrived there from Barcelona, with four hundred and ſeventy Jeſuits on board; the pope, though with reluctance, conſented to their being landed, and ordered them to be coducted to Ferrara.

The archduchefs, intended conſort to the king of Naples, is expected in that city by the beginning of November; and the marriage ceremony of their majeſties will be performed on the 4th of that month, the feſtival of St Charles, whoſe name the king of Spain bears.

An edict of the empreſs queen has juſt made its appearance in Bruſſels, prohibiting the admiſſion into that country of any of the Jeſuits expelled from Spain, or exiled from France; it matters not whether they are ſubjects, by birth, of her imperial majeſty, or whether or not they wear the habit of their order.

They write from Madrid, that a treaty is negociating with Ruſſia, and another with ſome of the German princes, for allowing a number of their ſubjects to ſettle, with their families, in Spain, in order to cultivate a barren tract of ground called, Serra Molenos. They are to be allowed the expences of their journey, and, on their arrival in the Spaniſh territories, are to receive the king's pay, and be provided with neceſſaries for a year. They are alſo to be furniſhed with materials for building, and tools for huſbandry; but, after the expiration of the abovementioned term, they are to maintain themſelves with the produce or revenue of their reſpective lands, which will be granted to them as their full property, beſides an exemption from all taxes for ten years to come.

They write from Penſacola, that the Spaniſh governor of New Orleans had received poſitive orders from his court to prevent the ſubjects of Great Britain from having the leaſt commercial intercourſe

with thoſe of his catholic majeſty under his command.

26th. The court of Common Pleas ordered an attachment againſt an officer of the ſheriff of Middleſex, for arreſting a gentleman at his houſe late at night, without notice, for a debt of 60l. due to his coachmaker, and refuſing, though the coachmaker was preſent, and bail offered to wait, but forcibly carried away to, and detained him illegally till next morning in a ſpunging-houſe, contrary to the laws of this realm.

There was a very great council at St. James's, to which, it is ſaid, no leſs than 106 members were ſummoned.

At the general court of the Eaſt-India company, held at Merchant Taylor's Hall, it was unanimouſly reſolved to grant a penſion of 1500l. per ann. to Gen. Lawrence, during his life for his many great ſervices to the company; the ſaid grant to commence from Chriſtmas laſt. The general enjoyed a penſion of 500l. a year before; and the above grant of 1500l. is an addition thereto. It was alſo moved, to grant the company's ſervants certain gratuities, for their reſpective ſervices.

Was found in the mackarel-nets of Folkſtone, a ſtrange kind of a fiſh. It meaſures in length about thirteen feet; its fore-fins are about two feet long, and the body reſembles that of a porpus; it has a broad thin tail, about ſix feet long. The fiſhermen declare they never ſaw ſuch a one before.

Application having been ſome time ago made to the miniſtry, to intercede with his majeſty to ſpare the life of one of the convicts under ſentence of death in Newgate, on condition that the ſaid convict ſhould ſuffer the amputation of a limb, in order to try the efficacy of a certain ſtyptic prepared by Mr. Pierce; and one John Benham having been reprieved, as it was imagined, for that purpoſe, Mr. Pierce waited upon the ſecretary of ſtate, when he was informed that the intention of trying his ſtyptic upon John Benham, a convict in Newgate, was entirely laid aſide, his majeſty being of opinion that it was quite improper to try ſuch experiment.

A Jew was carried before the lord mayor, charged with hawking hats for ſale in this city, contrary to law, which ſubjects all hawkers who preſume ſo to do in any corporation to the penalty of 12 l. or to be committed for a certain time to hard labour in Bridewell. The fact being proved, ſecurity was given for the Jew's appearance to anſwer the above charge before a court of judicature.

The duty of 6d. per chaldron on coals is granted to the city for 46 years, to redeem the tolls on the bridges, embanking the river, repairing the Exchange, and rebuilding Newgate.

A vein of copper ore has lately been diſcovered near Glaſgow, which, upon trial, promiſes fair to produce conſiderable profit. It lies not above three feet deep, and is ſuppoſed to lead to a conſiderable mine.

The prizes of 15 guineas each, given annually by the members for Cambridge, were adjudged to Mr. Stevenſon of King's and Mr. Ward of St John's College, ſenior bachelors; and to Mr. Arnold of St. John's and Mr. Clewes of Trinity College, middle bachelors.

A gen-

A gentleman of Derby has lately been into the Downs to make trial of a new marine ſurveyor. The machine conſiſts of an open tube four inches diameter, and two feet long: on the outſide is fixed an oblique plane like a ſcrew; upon which the water acts ſo as to turn it round ſwifter or ſlower, in proportion as the machine is drawn through the ſea with greater eaſe or leſs velocity.

Letters from Pomerania adviſe, that the cattle there have been inoculated with ſucceſs, for the contagious illneſs that has for ſome time reigned in that country.

Her imperial majeſty of Ruſſia has particularly recommended to the royal academy of ſciences at Peterſburg, to make exact obſervations of the next tranſit of Venus over the ſun's diſk, in the moſt proper places throughout her dominions.

Six or eight acres of the great bog above the lough of Loughcornute in the county of Galway, (part of the eſtate of Mr. Nettervil) fell ſuddenly into the lough, and made ſo prodigious a noiſe, that it extremely terrified the inhabitants for many miles round. The water of the lough has overflowed the grounds all about; the paſſage from the lough through Mr. Nettervil's ground, is quite ſhut up, and the courſe of the water totally changed.

On the third inſtant the deputies of the republic of Venice, entertained the reigning duke of Wurtemberg with one of the fineſt courſes of gondolas that has ever been ſeen there. There were five diviſions, each conſiſting of five gondolas, moſt magnificently painted and adorned, and all the rowers were in uniform. The machine, which ſerved for the butt, repreſented the palace of Neptune. There was an incredible number of foreigners of diſtinction at this feſtival, which terminated with a ſuperb ſupper, and a ball, given by his ſerene highneſs.

The annual produce of the mines in Sweden amounts to 400,000 ſchipfonds, each weighing 400 French pounds; and the number of workmen employed in them is 25,600, who are thereby enabled to maintain their wives and children.

From Liſbon we hear, that the French conſul there has received ſome diſpatches from the king his maſter, addreſſed to his Portugueſe majeſty, and accompanied with ſome preſents for the prince of whom the princeſs of Brazil was lately delivered, and for other perſons. The prince's preſent is a cockade ſet with brilliants, the button in the form of a roſe. Don Juan de Braganza, high admiral, has received the king of France's picture ſet with diamonds: the prince's governeſs a pair of earrings with a gold-box: the patriarch a diamond croſs: and the nurſe a gold ſnuff-box.

There are now 160 looms eſtabliſhed in the cambrick manufactory at Dundalk, where in the ſhort ſpace of one year only, above 70,000 yards have been made, the greater part already at market, or ſold; and it is obſervable, that this quantity has been made between May, 1766, and May, 1767, which ſhews that this important manufacture is in an improving ſtate, and will be of the utmoſt national advantage, which is already obvious from the gradual dimunition of

the importation of French cambricks into this kingdom.

29th. The following bills received the royal aſſent by commiſſion.

The bill for erecting a pier at St. Ives.

The bill for regulating the pariſh poor children within the bills of mortality.

The bill for completing Blackfriars bridge.

The bill for indemnifying perſons who have omitted to qualify themſelves for employments.

The bill for allowing a longer time for enrollment of deeds of papiſts, for relief of proteſtant purchaſers.

The bill for preventing the wear of cambricks.

The bill for extending the window act to Scotland.

The bill for altering the duties on policies, and leſſening the allowance for prompt payment of certain ſtamp-duties.

The bill for granting certain duties in the Britiſh American colonies.

The bill for regulating the dividend of the Eaſt-India company.—By this act no dividend is to be made from the 24th of June but in purſuance of a vote carried on a ballot, in a general court ſummoned for the purpoſe ſeven days beforehand; nor any increaſe of dividend beyond 10 per cent. till the next meeting of parliament.

The bill for eſtabliſhing an agreement between the government and the Eaſt-India company.—By this agreement the company are to pay the government 400,000 l. yearly for two years, by half yearly payments, during which time the territorial poſſeſſions and revenues lately obtained are to remain in the company's hands; but if diſpoſſeſſed of any of them in the mean time by any foreign power, a proportionable abatement is to be made in the annual payments; and money wrongfully paid to be refunded. The monies to be reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament.

The bill for regulating the manufactures, &c. in the Iſle of Man.

An order of council was this day publiſhed in the London Gazette, requiring lieutenants of counties where the militia have been embodied, to make out liſts of the officers, to prevent their being nominated for ſheriffs, during the time of their employment in that ſervice.

A fourth convoy, with 203 Jeſuits on board, arrived at Civita Vecchia, but were refuſed admittance, and followed the third. The Genoeſe, it is ſaid, have agreed to receive them.

Two itinerant preachers, one a taylor and the other a dyer, quarrelled in Moorfields about their religion; and the mob taking the dyer's part, the poor taylor was handled in a moſt inhuman manner, and would certainly have been killed but for the interpoſition of ſome gentlemen paſſing by.

The farms of the kingdom of France have been lately let to the farmers-general for the ſum of 132,250,000 livres per annum.

Letters received at Conſtantinople adviſe, that on the third of March laſt, being the ſecond feaſt of the Bairam, the day on which all the beys and other officers of the city repair to the caſtle to compliment Hamſey Pacha, governor of Egypt, about ſixty perſons, moſt of

of whom belonged to Grandees, who have been ſome time in exile, having formed a deſign of aſſaſſinating ſeveral of the beys now in poſt, got into the Pacha's hall of audience, diſguiſed and well-armed; but the Emir Hatch, or conductor of the Mecca caravan, having obſerved among them ſome ſuſpicious movements, he ſignified the ſame to the other beys; one of whom, on his taking leave of the Pacha, received a piſtol ſhot, which tore away part of his jaw. On this, all the beys had recourſe to their ſabres, fought their way through, and deſtroyed the conſpirators. One bey remained dead on the ſpot, others were dangerouſly wounded, as were alſo ſeveral principal officers. After this bloody ſcene, wherein many lives were loſt, the government ordered the Pacha to be depoſed, which was done the ſame day; and thoſe of his officers, who were ſuſpected to have favoured this plot, were baniſhed. The Janiſſary Aga has ordered many of the grandees of Cairo, who were diſcovered to be accomplices therein, to be puniſhed.

The 28th of laſt month, about five o'clock in the afternoon, the thunder fell upon the pariſh church of Villa-di-Stellone, a village near Carignam, by which ſeven perſons were killed, and ſeveral others wounded. The curate, who received a ſlight hurt on the foot, was ſeized with vomitings the next day, and an extraordinary pain in that foot. The noiſe of the thunder was terrible, and yet the people who were in the church were ſo ſtunned, that they were only ſenſible of a trifling noiſe like the report of a piſtol. The curate, who performed divine ſervice had no idea afterwards of what he had been doing; and thoſe who carried away the dead bodies could not recollect where they brought them from. At the ſame time the thunder fell upon the citadel of this place, and took its direction to a centry-box upon the north weſt baſtion, where it went down the barrel of the centry's muſket, and ſtruck the ſoldier's foot with ſuch violence as brought him to the ground, but did him no other miſchief. It rained very hard here at that time; but at Villa-di-Stellone, it neither rained nor thundered before or after the violent clap of thunder above-mentioned. The ſame ſtorm was felt in other places, upwards of 25 miles off. The evening before, a ſhock of an earthquake was felt at Turin, but more ſenſibly in other places, where ſome damage was done by it.

In a letter from Carthagena, via Jamaica, captain Henderſon, of the ſloop Fanny, bound from thence to the bay, gives a diſmal account of the loſs of the ſaid ſloop, on the 31ſt of October laſt, off Cape Gracias a Dios; with many other circumſtances that befel the crew (eleven in number) who all, except three, died through fatigue and the want of ſubſiſtence: thoſe who ſurvived being obliged to eat the fleſh of their deceaſed ſhipmates for food, and drink their own urine to quench their thirſt; and to make their caſe ſtill more diſmal, the brutiſh Spaniards refuſed them ſubſiſtence, as men ſaved from ſhipwreck; alledging, that they were not bound to the bay, and therefore muſt take up their abode in the common gaol among thieves, negroes and murderers.

Died,

Died, Mr. Lowther, near Guiſborough, aged 100 years.

Mrs. Jackſon, who for 50 years kept a boarding-ſchool at Kenſington.

Mr. Mathard, ſurgeon in Oxford-road, aged 102 years.

Peter Stuart, near Air in Scotland, aged 103 years.

JULY.

1ſt. The ſum of 60,000l. was this day paid down for the purchaſe of the royal theatre in Covent-Garden, purſuant to agreement. The patentees are Meſſieurs Colman, Harris, Rutherford, and Powel.

2d. His majeſty gave his aſſent to the following bills:

The bill for granting certain ſums out of the ſinking fund; and for impowering his majeſty to permit the importation of corn, duty free, for a longer time.

The bill for taking off the duty of 1s. a pound on all black and Singlo tea, and for granting a drawback on teas exported to Ireland and America.

The bill for granting certain duties on foreign linen, and a premium for the encouragement of raiſing hemp.

The bill for reſtraining the aſſembly of New York from paſſing any act, till they had complied with the act of parliament for the furniſhing his majeſty's troops with the neceſſaries required by that act.

The bill for putting the American duties into the hands of commiſſioners.

After which his majeſty made a moſt gracious ſpeech, which the reader will ſee in our ſtate papers; and the parliament was prorogued to the 31ſt of Auguſt.

3d. The demurrer of the feigned iſſue, directed by the court of King's Bench, between the mayor, &c. of Norwich, and Mr. Jeremiah Berry, an attorney of the court of Common Pleas, was argued in the court of King's Bench, when judgment was given for Mr. Berry. The queſtion was, whether the privilege of an attorney exempted him from ſerving the office of ſheriff? and all the judges of the court of King's Bench were clearly of opinion, that ſuch privilege excuſed him from ſerving that office, and even offices of a ſuperior nature, to that of a ſheriff of a corporation.

Lord Holland having lately erected a new tower built with flint and chalk, at his ſeat near Margate, the following inſcription in black letter, on a large piece of white ſtone, is placed on the front next the ſea:

D. M.
Danorum et Saxonum hic occiſorum
Dum de ſolo Britannico
Milites nihil a ſe alienum putant
Britannis perfide et crudelitur olim expulſis
Inter ſe dimicaverunt
Hen. de Holland poſuit.
Qui duces qualis hujus prœlii exitus
Nulla nota hiſtoria
Annum circiter DCCCL evenit pugna
Et pugnam hanc eveniſſe fidem taciunt
Oſſa quamplurima
Quæ ſub hoc et altero tumulo hic vicino
ſunt ſepulta.

The inſtructions given by the biſhops to the clergy of their ſeveral dioceſes, in conſequence of a motion in the houſe of lords, to take an account of the number of catholics in their reſpective pariſhes, has nothing alarming in it. A like order was given in 1746, to the clerks of the peace, when by a liſt

liſt then delivered, the whole landed property they were poſſeſſed of, amounted to 384,166l. 14s. 10d ¼. If a like account ſhould be now given in, it will at once be ſeen whether they increaſe in property or not.

Within theſe few days ſeveral ſhips have arrived in the river with wheat from abroad, whoſe cargoes conſiſt of 7485 quarters, beſides very great quantities of barley, oats, and other grain. Since the 23d of March laſt, there have been brought into the port of London, 115,497 quarters of wheat, a great part of which has been bought up for the country markets.

5th. This morning, at a quarter before nine o'clock, their royal and ſerene highneſſes the prince and princeſs of Brunſwick ſet out in one of his majeſty's coaches for Dover, on their return to Germany. The young prince of Brunſwick ſet out ſome time before them.

7th. This day at noon, his royal highneſs the duke of York ſet out from Pall-Mall, with a grand retinue, for Dover, in order to embark for Germany.

In the courſe of the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, 209 bills received the royal aſſent, viz. 95 public, and 114 private, which is the greateſt number that has received the royal aſſent in one ſeſſion for ſeveral years.

The intended marriage between the prince Stadtholder, and the princeſs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina of Pruſſia, was publicly declared at the Hague. As the prince Stadtholder was taking the diverſion of hawking, a dog caught a heron, with a braſs inſcription round his leg, ſetting forth, that he was taken and releaſed by the elector of Cologne, in the year 1737.

One of the clerks of the bank was apprehended on ſuſpicion of filing guineas. In the evening he attempted to cut his throat, but without ſucceſs. On ſearching his houſe, many curious inſtruments for the purpoſe above mentioned, and alſo a quantity of gold-duſt, were found.

11th. His royal highneſs the duke of York arrived at Bruſſels, under the title of earl of Ulſter, and in the evening went to the comedy, where he was received by prince Charles, who had already entertained the prince and princeſs of Brunſwick with all imaginable magnificence.

His excellency Sir James Gray, bart. ſet out on his embaſſy to Spain.

A young man in France, being lately attacked by a fever, became delirious, and afterwards raving mad. In this condition, the only objects of his fury were his parents; and he was at length ſo ſeemingly ſenſible of his error, that he talked of nothing but expiating his ſins by fire; and for that purpoſe, having raiſed a pile of wood, he found means to light it, and to throw himſelf in; but the torments he felt in the flames, ſoon brought him to himſelf, and he endeavoured to ſave his life, but too late; for tho' he had ſtrength enough to get out, yet he was ſo terribly ſcorched, that he died the next day in great agony.

They write from Paris, that an ingenious mechanic of that city has lately invented and finiſhed a curious ſnuff-box with chimes in the lid,

lid, that plays five tunes, and will hold half an ounce of ſnuff.

A broker near Old-ſtreet having purchaſed a room of goods belonging to a poor old woman in that neighbourhood, upon opening the draws of an old bureau, diſcovered a private one within another, in which he found a lottery-ticket for the year 1765, which, upon examination, proves to have been drawn a prize of 500l.

13th. A cauſe came on to be heard before lord chief juſtice Wilmot, in the court of Common Pleas, Weſtminſter, and a ſpecial jury, wherein Mr. Slater, of Southwark, was plaintiff, and an eminent ſurgeon, and an eminent apothecary, were defendants. The action was, that about a year ſince Mr. Slater unfortunately broke his leg, and it was ſet, and thought to be out of danger, by a ſurgeon, not one of the defendants; but the above ſurgeon being ſent for to looſen the bandage, his leg was again broke, and a cure not performed. After a hearing of ſeven hours, a verdict was given in favour of the plaintiff of 250l. damages from each of the defendants.

Came on at Guildhall the trial of a tradeſman's wife in the Little Old-Bailey, for cruelly beating a girl, about 11 years of age, whom her huſband had taken apprentice out of the Foundling-hoſpital. It appeared on the trial, that ſhe had tied the girl to a nail, and beat her with a rope's end, that from being a fine healthy child, ſhe was, by ill uſage, almoſt reduced to a ſkeleton. The trial laſted till ſix o'clock, when the jury, in about half an hour, brought in their verdict guilty. She is to receive ſentence the firſt adjournment-day after the ſeſſions at the Old-Bailey.

On Friday laſt their royal and ſerene highneſſes the prince and princeſs and young prince of Brunſwick arrived at Bruſſels in perfect health. They were received with all the honours that poſſibly could be ſhewn to ſuch illuſtrious perſonages. There was a company of grenadiers with the colours to receive them where they lodged, and the equipages of the court ready to attend them. In the evening, they went to the comedy.

In an hour after their arrival all the nobility in town went to pay their court to them; and an expreſs having been ſent to his royal highneſs prince Charles, informing him of their arrival, he immediately came to town, and went directly to the playhouſe to meet them, and expreſſed the greateſt joy and pleaſure in having the honour of ſeeing them at Bruſſels.

14th. This morning, about three o' clock, a terrible fire broke out at a houſe in New-ſtreet, near Shadwell church, which burnt with great fury for ſome time, and deſtroyed about 14 houſes, together with a large cooperage, before it was extinguiſhed. A perſon is taken up on ſuſpicion of having ſet fire to the houſe where it began; and another perſon, with a large ſack filled with linen, &c. was taken in Fleet-market, and carried to the Compter, on ſuſpicion of having ſtolen them at the above fire.

The great cauſe between his grace the duke of Hamilton and Archibald Douglas, Eſq; was decided

cided in the court of ſeſſions at Edinburgh, in favour of duke Hamilton.

As the wife of John Bennet, of Handſworth, near Birmingham was ringing a pan, to ſettle a ſwarm of bees, they fixed upon her head, neck, and breaſt, and continued till the evening, when ſhe ſhook them off into a hive; and received no other hurt than a few ſtings on her arms and breaſt.

Lord Clive arrived in town 15th from Portſmouth, where he landed the day before, from on board the Britannia Indiaman, from Bengal, in perfect health; general Calliot and governor Palk arrived in town at the ſame time.—The cargo of the Britannia conſiſts of piece goods, raw ſilk, red wood and ſaltpetre.

A moſt melancholy accident happened at a gentleman's ſeat near Greenhithe in Kent, where the game-keeper having put a quantity of gunpowder into the warm oven to dry, very thoughtleſsly left it there, and went into the field to work. Juſt before dinner the under-cook maid, as her cuſtom was, went to light the oven, when the powder inſtantly took fire, and the blaſt came full in the unhappy girl's face, ſet her all in a blaze, and ſhe expired in five minutes a dreadful ſpectacle to look at Her terrible ſhrieks alarmed the family, and one of the men ſervants throwing his coat over her to extinguiſh the flames, brought off the ſkin of her face and neck when it was removed, and increaſed the horror of her appearance. A like accident happened a few days before at a gentleman's ſeat near Boulogne in France, where the gardener playing with a gun, and firing it off in ſport, ſet fire to a box of gunpowder, and blew up the houſe with ſeven perſons in it; himſelf and a maid ſervant were killed on the ſpot, but five others, though wounded, wonderfully eſcaped with life.

His grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury, in obedience to his majeſty's command, has ſent circular letters to all the biſhops, his ſuffragans, deſiring them to procure from their reſpective clergy complete liſts of all papiſts, or reputed papiſts, in their reſpective dioceſes, diſtinguiſhing their ſexes, ages, and occupations, and how long they have been reſident there. His grace has alſo ſent letters to all the clergy in his dioceſe, requiring them to make out liſts in the ſame manner for their reſpective pariſhes; which liſts are to be laid before the houſe of peers the firſt day of next ſeſſion of parliament. The ſame orders have been iſſued by the archbiſhop of York to the biſhops and clergy of his dioceſe.

The ſeſſions ended at the Old-Bailey, when three priſoners were capitally convicted, one to be tranſported for 14 years, 30 for ſeven years, and four branded. 17th.

Twenty-four former capital convicts received his majeſty's moſt gracious pardon, on the following condition: ten to be tranſported during their natural lives, ſeven for fourteen years, and ſeven for ſeven years.

A cauſe was tried in the court of King's Bench, between Edward Lunſdon, an elected freeman of Morpethin Northumberland, plaintiff, and Chriſtopher Fawcet, ſteward of the court-leet of the lord of the manor, defendant, on a mandamus for refuſing to admit the plain-

plaintiff to his freedom, which was determined in favour of the plaintiff; by which deciſion the people of Morpeth are reſtored to their ancient right of electing their own members. Thirty-two other cauſes depended upon this verdict.

19th. The princeſs Poniatowſki, ſiſter to the king of Poland, arrived at St. James's.

A moſt terrible thunder-ſtorm happened at Leeds in Yorkſhire, as ever was remembered by any man living. It ſtruck one of the chimnies of the workhouſe, ſhivered the ſlates from the ridge to the eaves; it entered the garret, and ſtruck a poor woman dead. It alſo ſtruck the two oppoſite ſides of the room, and made a way through the wall on the north ſide, and through a window on the ſouth, by two large apertures. It likewiſe ſtruck an old man who ſat in a window below whetting his knife, ſet fire to his clothes, and burnt him ſo terribly that it is thought he cannot recover. Three other perſons in a houſe at ſome diſtance were miſerably ſcorched; and at Scot-hill-mill it fell upon a chimney, entered ſome lodging-rooms, and made its way out at the windows, carrying the glaſs and frame along with it.

20th. We hear that lord Clive has brought over, and preſented to his majeſty, a fine ſword ſet with diamonds, and a fine pearl necklace for her majeſty, both of very conſiderable value. He has likewiſe brought a fine diamond as a preſent from the Nabob to his majeſty, of immenſe value, and many curioſities of that country.

By a letter, dated the firſt of December laſt, from a gentleman who was on board the Falmouth Eaſt-Indiaman, when ſhe was ſtruck with lightning, we are informed, that they were afterwards wrecked in the mouth of the Ganges; and of 360 men, whom they carried from England, there are only about 160 now alive at Calcutta; the reſt being either killed by the lightening, burnt in the ſhip, drowned, devoured by tygers when they got on ſhore, or dead of fatigue.

21ſt. An inquiſition was taken at Guy's hoſpital, on the body of Elizabeth, the wife of Edward Haſcar, otherwiſe called Sarah Bartlett, (for by that name ſhe was brought to the hoſpital) when it appeared, by the evidence of Elizabeth Aldridge, ſervant to Patrick Dawſon, of Bermondſey-ſtreet, ſurgeon and apothecary, (the only witneſs as to the fact,) that the deceaſed was formerly houſekeeper to her maſter, and that ſhe uſed frequently to come to his houſe and cohabit with him; that laſt Thurſday evening, on his coming home, he aſked the witneſs whether the deceaſed had been there, who informed him ſhe had not: he then expreſſed a great deſire to ſee her, and directed the witneſs to riſe early next morning and fetch her, which ſhe did, and on coming in, her maſter being in bed, the witneſs informed him the deceaſed was come; whereon he deſired them to come up ſtairs to him, and a boy was ſent for ſome brandy, which being drank, he ordered the witneſs to make ſome chocolate for their breakfaſt; and on the witneſs's quitting the room for that purpoſe, the deceaſed immediately followed her into the kitchen; that ſoon after her maſter came down, and he and the deceaſed breakfaſted together

in the kitchen; that after breakfaſt, Dawſon ſaluted the deceaſed, ſaying, My dear, I love you; I have ſomething in particular to tell you: to which the deceaſed anſwered, the maid would go out of the kitchen; he replied, that would not do. The deceaſed then propoſed to go into the little parlour, and ſeveral other places, but none would do beſides his bed-chamber, to which, at length, ſhe conſented to go; and on their going up ſtairs, ſhe ſaid, it is not the firſt time I have truſted myſelf with you alone, by many, and expreſſed a great deſire of knowing the ſecret he was to communicate to her: That on her entering the bed-chamber, the door was immediately faſtened, and they continued very quiet about a quarter of an hour, when on a ſudden the deceaſed cried out ſeveral times, murder! murder! Betty! Betty! That the witneſs ran directly up ſtairs, and found the bed-chamber door locked, and heard Dawſon ſay, Betty, you are too late; that ſhe burſt open the door, and ſaw the deceaſed lying on the floor in a gore of blood, her maſter ſtanding near her with a bloody knife in his right hand; and on the witneſs crying out, You wicked, bloodthirſty man, what have you done! He moved the knife, aiming at her, as if he intended directly to ſtab her, and d—d her, ſaying, he would ſtab her too. That on the witneſs aſking the deceaſed, what occaſioned her maſter to uſe her ſo? ſhe informed her, that becauſe ſhe had refuſed to permit him to be criminally concerned with her, he on a ſudden opened his bureau, and from thence took a knife, with which he ſtabbed her. The ſurgeons, on examining the deceaſed's body, diſcovered three wounds in her belly, which they made no doubt were mortal, and confirmed the above witneſs in the deceaſed's declaration as to the occaſion. The deceaſed was ſent to Guy's hoſpital, and there died the next morning; where ſhe alſo declared the reaſon of ill treatment, and acknowledged ſhe was above five months gone with child, but was uncertain who was the father of it. The Jury brought in their verdict, wilful murder. The above Patrick Dawſon is not yet taken.

A terrible ſtorm of thunder, lightening, hail, and rain, happened in the neighbourhood of Valenciennes, in France, which did conſiderable damage to houſes, trees, corn, and cattle. It began a few miles to the ſouth-weſt of that city, and proceeded in a north-eaſt direction as far as the province of Holland, cauſing great deſolation in its progreſs, not unlike the ſtorm of 1763, which laid waſte a part of Kent.

His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, who lately ſet out on his travels through France and Germany, had an interview with the king and queen of France, at Compeigne, to whom he was introduced by the title of Earl of Ulſter.

A ball of fire fell at Norrington farm near Overton, in Hampſhire, and ſet fire to a barn, in which were large quantities of corn, which, together with two ſtacks of hay, were conſumed. (Mingling pearl-aſh with the water in engines for extinguiſhing fire, has been diſcovered to be very effectual for that purpoſe.)

A col-

A collier, burthen 150 tons, was burnt at Blockhouſe Point, near Portſmouth, on account of brandy and tea being found buried under her cargo of coals. At the ſame time and place a ſmuggling ſloop was burnt: and ſtrict orders are given to the officers of the cuſtoms to ſuppreſs the infamous practice of ſmuggling.

The public has hitherto in vain expected a manifeſto from the king of Spain againſt the jeſuits of his kingdom. It is now ſaid that this ſtate-paper (if there ſhould be one) will be only delivered to the ſovereigns of Europe.

Mr. Fortree, one of the commiſſioners of the victualling-office died lately. What is remarkable, a commiſſioner of the ſame board having dreamed that one of their number had fallen down dead, and telling his dream the next morning, the words were ſcarce uttered, when Mr. Fortree ſuddenly expired.

23d. Her Royal Highneſs princeſs Amelia made a viſit to the R. H. Lord Edgecombe, at Mount Edgecombe, and paſſed through Plymouth in her progreſs, where all imaginable honours were paid her; and ſhe was highly pleaſed with her reception.

The dragoman of the Britiſh conſul at Aleppo, by birth a ſubject of the Sultan, having incurred the diſpleaſure of his ſuperiors, he was lately impriſoned, and his commiſſion demanded from the conſul, on pain of cutting off his head; on which, the conſul found it neceſſary to comply; but at the ſame time preferred a complaint to his majeſty's ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, who having preſented a memorial to the Porte on that occaſion, was anſwered haughtily, that ſuch were the orders of the ſovereign.

A clerk of the Bank, confined in the Poultry Compter, for filing guineas, being recovered of a wound he gave himſelf when firſt apprehended, was, after examination, committed to Newgate. He made no defence; but a friend ſaid for him, that the duſt produced was not gold.

A few days ago, as the archbiſhop of Paris was at Conflans, and the workmen were repairing his palace, ſome unknown perſons entered the palace, forced open two doors and ſeveral locks, and took out of his cabinet ſeveral papers, and a pocket-book, belonging to that prelate, which deprives him of the means of making his defence if he was attacked; which makes it believed that the perſons concerned in this proceeding, had other motives than to plunder. The archbiſhop has taken the proper ſteps, in order to obtain redreſs by law, and laſt Wedneſday he informed the king of the affair.

Cardinal de Bernis, archbiſhop of Alby, has lately given a great proof of his humanity, by diſcharging all his ſervants except three, on account of the high price of proviſions, which renders him unable to relieve the diſtreſſes of the poor in the manner he uſed to do. He daily feeds two hundred poor people who come to his palace for that purpoſe, excluſive of the ſick, and other unhappy objects, whom he relieves in his metropolis, and other towns belonging to his dioceſe.

25th. About eight in the morning three large boats (in which were above 100 perſons armed

armed with guns and cutlaſſes) came into the harbour of Kinmare, in the county of Kerry, in Ireland, and ſurrounded the ſloop Henry, laden with tea, from France, then under ſeizure of the revenue officers; and, after ſeveral ſhots being exchanged, the ſmugglers overpowered the officers, and forcibly carried off the whole cargo. Another deſperate engagement has ſince happened between the officers in two cuſtom-houſe barges, and a party of ſmugglers, on the north coaſt, in which ſeveral were killed on both ſides; but the ſmugglers at laſt got the advantage, and carried their goods clear off.

28th. They write from Vienna, that Wedneſday laſt, being the day appointed for the public thankſgiving, the empreſs appeared in public for the firſt time ſince the late emperor's death.

Laſt Saturday, in the evening, the marriage of the princeſs Louiſa Henrietta Wilhelmina of Brandenbourg, with the reigning prince of Anhalt Deſſau, was ſolemnized in the royal chapel at Charlottenbourg, by the Rev. Mr. Sack, firſt chaplain to the king of Pruſſia.

Yeſterday, in the evening, the ceremony of betrothing and exchanging of rings, between her royal highneſs the princeſs Wilhelmina of Pruſſia, and his ſerene highneſs the prince of Orange, was performed at Charlottenbourg, in the preſence of his Pruſſian majeſty, and the reſt of the royal family, &c.

A young woman at Lyons, very handſome, but little advantaged in point of fortune, was the object of criminal deſire to three young fellows. Each endeavoured ſeparately to ſeduce her, but without ſucceſs. The better to ſucceed, they joined, and had recourſe to the ſtratagems of a procureſs, who having contrived to bring the girl to her houſe, the three gallants there forced her, and, dreading afterwards the puniſhment of their crime, cut her body to pieces, and threw it into the Rhone. For ſome days the unhappy parents ſought their daughter in vain; but the river having thrown up ſeveral parts of the mangled carcaſe, it was then concluded ſhe was murthered. Information having been taken, it was found ſhe had been at the procureſs's; whereupon the latter was taken up and interrogated, when ſhe confeſſed her crime and her accomplices.

30th. The Princeſs Poniatowſki, ſiſter to the king of Poland, and the prince de Ligne, who accompanied her, viſited Oxford, and expreſſed great ſatisfaction.

Letters from Jamaica inform, that the Spaniſh government have actually expended three millions of dollars in augmenting the fortifications at the Havannah, which were extended in-land ſeveral miles.

Letters from Baſtia ſay, that on the 8th inſt. three Spaniſh xebecks and fourteen tranſports, having on board 970 expulſed Jeſuits, got under ſail, and that orders were ſent to the other tranſports lying in the gulph of St. Fiorenzo to proceed to Calvi, Algaiola, and Ajaccio, and to land the Jeſuits at thoſe places; the whole number of whom, arrived in Corſica, is 2300: and that orders were ſent, at the ſame time, to the commanding officers of the French troops

in thoſe places, that, as ſoon as the Jeſuits were landed, they ſhould embark with the troops on board the tranſports that carried the Jeſuits, and proceed to France.

They write from Bois le duc, that the advices received of the damages done by the late dreadful ſtorm, of the 20th, which fell upon the town, and its environs, are moſt deplorable. Nineteen villages have ſuffered by the hail, which has damaged the houſes, and broke the windows to pieces. They count at Roſmalen no leſs than 509 oak trees torn by the roots by the impetuoſity of the wind; and between 70 and 80 houſes and barns carried away or partly deſtroyed, as alſo the reformed and catholic churches. Letters from the lordſhip of Empel and Meerwyk bring advice, that the Proteſtant church and ſchool there are ſtripped of their roofs, and the Roman Catholic churches and eighteen houſes converted into heaps of ruins; that the village of Hartwick had undergone the ſame fate, and that all the damages put together amounted to an immenſe ſum.

They write from Mobille, in Weſt Florida, that Meſſrs. Ferguſon and Atkins, two Indian traders, had lately returned from a town eleven hundred miles up the great river Miſſiſſippi, where they had each married the daughters of an Indian Chief, and thereby eſtabliſhed a mart of trade for beavers, fur, deer-ſkins, &c. from whence great advantages were expected.

By a private letter received by the Speaker Indiaman, from Bombay, we learn, that the Arabs on the ſea-coaſt up the gulph have lately cut off one of our country veſſels, captain's name Brewer; and that they are fitting out, at Bombay, two of the company's frigates and the Salamander bomb, to go in queſt of the robbers. The ſame advices add, that they are getting ready troops there to go out upon an expedition to Mocha.

They write from Malta, that the captain of a ſhip lately arrived there has informed them, that a ſmall Corſican armed veſſel, having perceived, not far from that city, that a Turkiſh galley, returning from the coaſt of Africa with a conſiderable quantity of treaſure for the Grand Seignor, was in chace of her, and that ſhe could not avoid falling into the hands of the infidels, the crew immediately reſolved rather to periſh than be reduced to ſlavery; and, animated with an heroic courage, they boarded the galley, and made great ſlaughter there, till at length, being almoſt overcome by ſuperior force, they were ſuccoured by a Malteſe galley, under the command of the chevalier Roſſelmini of Piſa, who immediately with his crew leaped on board the Turkiſh galley, and completed the victory which the Corſicans had begun. It is added, that the latter had for their ſhare of the booty ſeveral cannon, fire-arms, and ammunition, together with 16,000 crowns in ready money.

A few days ſince died at Ware in Hertfordſhire, ſaid to be upwards of 105 years of age, a poor man, without any known ſurname, but muſt be well remembered about London, which he uſed to traverſe, with a remarkable long beard, ſelling matches and ballads, and playing ſome tricks of dexterity

dexterity or fleight of hand, and uſed in his patrol commonly to be ſaying, *Poor Joe, all alone*, by which term he was well known. He is reported not to have lain upon a bed for more than fifty years paſt, notwithſtanding which he died worth upwards of 3000l. which he has by will left for the benefit of widows and orphan children, under the direction of certain perſons named in his will for that purpoſe. This remarkable old fellow had acted the part of a ſpy in the rebel army in Scotland, in the year 1745, where he ſold gingerbread, whiſkey, &c. and was well known to many of our military people.

John Ubers, Printer, at Amſterdam, aged 106 years.

Mr. Gerard Lamb, at Madraſs, aged 103 years.

Mrs. Waters, on Saffron-Hill, aged 102 years.

A woman near Cockermouth, aged 102 years.

AUGUST.

1ſt. A dividend warrant, dated in 1698, for 700l, being a year's intereſt on 10,000l. bank ſtock, was preſented at the bank for payment; but, being of ſo early a date, the books were to be examined before the claim could be confirmed.

The count de Malzahan, envoy extraordinary from the king of Pruſſia, and Count de Welderen, from the States General, having notified to his majeſty the approaching marriage of the prince Stadtholder with the princeſs, niece to the king of Pruſſia, his majeſty ſent compliments of congratulation on this alliance to the king of Pruſſia, the States General, and to the prince and princeſs, who are to be eſpouſed.

4th. At Saliſbury aſſizes a very intereſting cauſe was tried, in which two cheeſe factors were plaintiffs, againſt the hundred of Chippenham, for a load of cheeſe, value 60l. which was forcibly taken away upon the king's highway, by a company of rioters. After a long trial, the jury found for the plaintiffs.

James Brownrigg, a painter in Flower de Luce court, was committed to Wood-ſtreet compter for cruel uſage to two girls, his apprentices. His wife, who made her eſcape, is ſaid to be the chief inſtrument; but he, it ſeems, was acceſſory. The barbarity of this man and his wife to theſe poor orphans is ſhocking to human nature.

About three in the morning, the inhabitants of Leeds in Yorkſhire were greatly alarmed with a ſudden and uncommon ſwell in the river, which roſe upwards of two yards perpendicular height in the ſpace of an hour, by which ſeveral fields of hay were ſwept away. Much more damage was done by the ſudden riſing of the river Wharf, which was higher than has been known for near 20 years paſt. At Beamſley two houſes, and Lindley and Dob-park bridges were carried away. Great damage is done to all the corn-lands adjoining to that river; and great numbers of oxen, horſes, and ſheep, along its banks, were carried down by the current. At Morton-banks many farmers are almoſt totally ruined, At Woodſome, a mill, and part of a houſe, and near forty cottages were de-

ſtroyed, and ſeveral other houſes are much damaged. The river Nidd overflowed its banks, and has done an incredible deal of miſchief.—It is remarkable that on the ſame day, but at a different hour, the river Slitterick, which runs through Havick in Scotland, roſe to an uncommon height, without any extraordinary rain falling that day, or for ſome days before; and the river Teviot was then fordable. It began to riſe about four o'clock in the afternoon, and continued increaſing till after ſix, when the water was 22 feet higher than uſual. The conſternation of the town's people is ſcarce to be conceived; for the water ruſhed into the ſtreets with inexpreſſible violence, threatening univerſal deſolation. Fifteen dwelling-houſes, with the corn-mill at the end of the town, were preſently ſwept away, and the very rock, on which they were founded, waſhed ſo clean, that not a bit of rubbiſh, or veſtige of a building, is left. As no human aſſiſtance could avail, the miniſter of the place called the inhabitants to church, to ſupplicate Heaven to avert the judgment that ſeemed to threaten them. At the height of the flood, a ſervant maid, belonging to a merchant of the town, recollected that her maſter had in the houſe (which was then ſurrounded with water) about 300 l. in gold. Her maſter being from home, ſhe acquainted the neighbours, and begged their aſſiſtance to recover it, but none of them would venture; upon which the girl herſelf boldly waded into the houſe, and got hold of the bag, with the money; but, in coming out, ſhe was carried down by the ſtream. Providence, however, interpoſed for her ſafety. She was caſt aſhore on a green a little below the town juſt alive, and the money graſped in both her hands ſo faſt, that with ſome difficulty it was removed. A little above the town three houſes were quite covered with water, except the chimney-tops; they were in an eddy, which ſaved them. The river Rule likewiſe roſe to an uncommon height.

The report was made to his majeſty of the three malefactors under ſentence of death in Newgate; when they were all reſpited.

Saturday laſt about five hundred ſhear-men, from the clothing towns of Somerſetſhire and Wiltſhire, aſſembled together upon Corſley-heath, and went in a body to Horniſham, near Warminſter, Wilts, and pulled down and deſtroyed a new gig-mill, juſt erected for dreſſing broad-cloth, belonging to Mr. Everet of that place; whereby one man and a boy could do as much work in two hours, as thirty men could do in a day.

On Saturday a journeyman ſtone-cutter at Knightſbridge went to a public-houſe in that place, and ſent for a girl he had for ſome time kept company with, and, under pretence of treating her with ſix-pennyworth of rum and water, he infuſed into the ſame a quantity of arſenick; the conſequence of which was, that ſhe died yeſterday in great agonies. The man has abſconded.

We hear from Kilcorney, in the county of Clare, that on Sunday laſt a man of that village, touched by jealouſy, aſſaulted his wife, and with a pair of tongs beat her

her in ſo cruel a manner, that her life was deſpaired of. The wretch then ſeeing his wife thus weltering in blood, and, in his thoughts, paſt all hopes of recovery, as if ſeized with madneſs, threw off his cloaths, and ran naked to a ſtone wall, againſt which he repeatedly ſtruck his head with ſo much violence as to fracture his ſkull, whereof we hear he died laſt Tueſday.

The deputy-overſeer, or governor of a country pariſh workhouſe, was carried before the right hon. the lord mayor, charged with the following offence, viz. That he had artfully inveigled a girl, about eighteen years of age, from the pariſh workhouſe to London, where he had endeavoured to ſell her to ſome office-keepers, in order to ſend her abroad. The office-keeper finding the girl had a particular infirmity upon her, he refuſed to take her. The overſeer upon this endeavoured to drop the poor girl in Cornhill; but a gentleman happening to overhear what was ſaid, ſecured Mr. overſeer and the girl, and carried them before his lordſhip. The charge appearing pretty plain, the overſeer was committed to the Compter, and the girl was taken care of until the pariſh officers could be informed of the above inhuman particulars. A poor boy, covered with vermin, alſo appeared againſt Mr overſeer, to ſhew his lordſhip what great care was taken of the pariſh poor in the ſaid workhouſe.

11th. The coroner's jury finiſhed their enquiry, at the Red Cow, in Smithfield, on the body of Mary Clifford, late apprentice to James Brownrigg, painter, in Fetter-lane; when it appeared by the evidence of the ſurviving apprentice, that, about a year and a half ago, the deceaſed was put apprentice, and was upon trial about a month, during which ſhe eat and drank as the family did; that ſoon after, her miſtreſs, Elizabeth Brownrigg, began to beat and ill-treat the deceaſed, ſometimes with a walking-cane, at other times with a horſe-whip, or a poſtilion's whip, ſtripping her quite naked, tying her hands acroſs with a cord ſometimes fixed to a water-pipe, and ſometimes to a ſtaple in a beam in the kitchen under ground, ſtriking her over all parts of her body and head, under pretence that ſhe had not worked hard enough; that particularly on the 31ſt of July laſt, her miſtreſs obliged the deceaſed to ſtrip herſelf naked, and then tied her up to the ſtaple in the beam, and beat her with a whalebone riding whip on ſeveral parts of her body, and with the butt end, divers times about the head, the blood guſhing from her head and other parts of her body; that ſhe repeated ſuch illuſage that day five ſeveral times afterwards; and the deceaſed continued bleeding, from her head and ſhoulders, from that time till the 4th inſtant, when ſhe was conveyed to the workhouſe, no dreſſings having been applied to her wounds. A late journeyman of Brownrigg's depoſed, that his maſter once whipped one of the girls, he could not tell which; when the whip being broken, he mended it again. The wife of a tradeſman in Flower-de-Luce Court, depoſed, that ſhe had often heard lamentable cries and groans iſſuing from the lower part of Brownrigg's houſe; whereupon, on Monday the third inſtant, ſhe deſired her journeyman to look down

Brownrigg's ſky-light (part of which happened that day to be taken off) to ſee if he could diſcover from whence thoſe groans aroſe; when, ſeeing ſomething lie on the ground, he threw down a little piece of the wall; and the deceaſed lifted up her head, made a ſort of noiſe in her throat, but ſeemed unable to ſpeak. On this diſcovery, information was given to the pariſh officer, on whoſe coming to the houſe, and deſiring to ſee the girl, Brownrigg ſaid that ſhe was at Stanſtead in Hertfordſhire, and had been there a fortnight; but being confronted by the man who had ſeen her lying under the ſky-light, and threatened by the officers, he at length produced the unhappy creature in a moſt ſhocking condition, and ſpeechleſs. The ſurgeons gave it as their opinion, that the wounds ſhe had received had occaſioned her death. The jury brought in their verdict, charging Elizabeth and James Brownrigg, as both guilty of wilful murder; the latter for having aided and abetted the cruelties of his wife. The youngeſt ſon, who was confined in the Poultry Compter, was ordered to be diſcharged, no accuſation having been laid againſt him at the above inqueſt.

At Mantes, on the river Seine in France, a moſt dreadful ſtorm of thunder, hail, and rain, laid thirty pariſhes under water, carried away many houſes, deſtroyed the produce of the earth to a great extent, and did irreparable damage to many farmers in that neighbourhood.

Anne Sowerby was burnt at York, for poiſoning her huſband. She declared juſt before ſhe was brought out of the cell, that a man gave her ſome nux vomica in order to poiſon her husband, which ſhe burnt; that he gave his own wife ſome of the poiſon, who died ſoon after; that, ſome days after, he brought her ſome arſenic, and aſſiſted her in mixing it with curds, which ſhe gave her husband for breakfaſt, who died a few hours after eating them.

The duke of York was moſt magnificently entertained at Chantilly, by the king and queen of France, to which entertainment the prince of Condè, by the king's order, invited more than 300 of the principal nobility of that kingdom.

The ſociety of arts in the Strand came to a reſolution to give 100 l. to Mr. Philips, for the diſcovery of his manner of dying red and yellow leather.

The inhabitants of the town of Sherborne in Dorſetſhire came to a reſolution to proſecute, to the utmoſt rigour of the law, every ſtranger preſuming to come into that town to be inoculated. *Query, By what law?*

16th. Early this morning a gang of villains, to the number of twelve, or more, attacked two men in coming over Tower-hill, who crying out vehemently, ſeveral watchmen came to their aſſiſtance, one of whom the villains cut in a moſt ſhocking manner; his cheek, in particular, was cut from the mouth to the ear, and his ſkull on the forehead laid bare for ſix or ſeven inches. Two of the rogues, however, were ſecured, and the wounded man carried to the hoſpital.

Elizabeth Brownrigg, who, with John Brownrigg her ſon, had fled

from

from juſtice, being charged on the coroner's inqueſt with the wilful murder of Mary Clifford, her apprentice, was taken at a chandler's ſhop at Wandſworth, and brought to the Poultry-compter. In order to ſecrete themſelves they paſſed for man and wife, lay together in the ſame bed, and kept themſelves very retired. The maſter of the ſhop, however, reading the advertiſement deſcribing their perſons, and offering a reward for apprehending them, thought he could perceive ſome ſimilitude between the perſons deſcribed and his lodgers; and, without taking any notice of his intentions, ſet out for London, and acquainted Mr. Owen, churchwarden of St. Dunſtan's, with his ſuſpicions, who, with two conſtables, immediately ſet out for Wandſworth, where they found the mother in bed, and the ſon walking about the room. They were ſo diſguiſed that the conſtables, who were well acquainted with them before, could hardly know them. Upon entering the priſon the mother fell into fits, which have occaſionally attacked her ever ſince.

A tradeſman's ſon, in St. Martin's, paſſing through Duke's-court, with a bank-note in his hand, began to play careleſsly with two goats belonging to the Mews, when one of them nibbled the bank-note out of the lad's hand, and ſwallowed it.

At the annual meeting of the clergy, and ſons of the clergy, at Briſtol, the collection, at church and at dinner, amounted to 201 l. 3 s. 9 d.

21ſt. John Brownrigg, eldeſt ſon of Brownrigg the painter, was examined before the lord-mayor, relative to the murder of Mary Clifford; when the ſurviving apprentice depoſed, that about ſix months ago the ſaid John beat the deceaſed with the buckle end of a thick leather belt, till the blood ran from her head, neck, and ſhoulders (ſeveral wounds ſhe had before received being but juſt ſkinned over) becauſe ſhe did not turn up a bedſtead, though (as appeared to the deponent) ſhe had not ſtrength to do it; and that about three months ago the ſaid John came into the cellar, juſt after his mother had been horſewhipping the deceaſed, who was then naked, when the former told him, that though ſhe had beaten the girl ſeverely, yet ſhe could not make her do any thing, and bid him whip her; whereupon he gave the deceaſed about twenty cuts with the laſh of the whip; after which the mother and ſon went away, leaving the poor creature naked. The witneſs having added, that the ſon had not, to her knowledge, beat the deceaſed after the laſt mentioned time, and it being the opinion of the ſurgeons that the wounds, which occaſioned her death, were thoſe which ſhe received on the 31ſt ult. and the whippings given by the ſon being before that time, he was not judged acceſſary to the murder; but was remanded to the Compter, till it could be known whether the pariſh-officers had any other charge againſt him. It appeared in the courſe of this examination, that Elizabeth Brownrigg began to beat the deceaſed at about one month after her being bound apprentice, and from that time the wounds of the unhappy girl were never ſuf-

fered to heal thoroughly, but conſtantly kept open by repeated ſeverities.

Some regulations have lately been made for the more amicably carrying on the trade with the Indian tribes, in the ſouthern diſtrict of America, by which all white people are forbid, on very ſevere penalties, from hunting deer, or bear, in any of the woods or hunting-grounds of the Indians, and are prohibited from trading with them clandeſtinely, or ſupplying them with more than a certain quantity of ſpirituous liquors at a time; which, it is believed, will prevent much bloodſhed.

Two Engliſh ſchooners, laden with beef, pork, flour, cured fiſh, and live ſtock, from the continent, have been ſeized by order of the governor of Martinico; although the poor inhabitants are in the greateſt diſtreſs for want of proviſions.

At Philadelphia, Stephen Porter was apprehended and committed to gaol for the murder of captain Weſtcoat, of Briſtol. Porter had been guilty of ſome offence on ſhip board, for which the captain beat him. Porter, in revenge, on the night following, with three others of the crew, ſplit the captain's ſkull with an axe, as he lay aſleep, and afterwards diſpatched the mate.

At the aſſizes at Croydon, John Baptiſt Malony was tried for unlawfully exerciſing the function of a popiſh prieſt, and adminiſtering the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper to divers perſons, after the manner of the church of Rome, when he was found guilty, and received ſentence of perpetual impriſonment.

Twenty live bullocks, and cows, the property of Mr. John Hawthorne, of Drogheda in Ireland, were maſſacred by the mob, on pretence of their being deſigned for exportation in England.

The following particulars are given by a gentleman, who is now at Erfurt in Germany. In the church of the Peterſburg Benedictines here, is ſhewn the tomb of Louis, Count Gleichen, of the illuſtrious houſe of Scharzbourg, which hath given an Emperor to Germany. The count was made priſoner in an engagement againſt the Saracens, and ſuffered a long and ſevere captivity. As he was at work one day in the gardens of the Sultan, he was accoſted and aſked ſome queſtions by his maſter's daughter, who was walking there. The agreeable perſon of the Count, and his addreſs in working, ſo greatly pleaſed the princeſs, that ſhe promiſed to ſet him free, and to go off with him, provided he would marry her. 'I have a wife and children,' anſwered he—'That ſignifies nothing,' ſays ſhe, 'the cuſtom of my country allows a man to have ſeveral wives.' The count was not obſtinate, he acquieſced to this reaſon, and gave her his promiſe. The princeſs made uſe of ſuch ſpeed and addreſs to releaſe him from his captivity, that they were ſoon ready to embark on board a ſhip. They arrived ſafely at Venice. The count there found one of his domeſtics, who had been travelling about to gain intelligence of him, and was informed by this ſervant, that his wife and children were well. He haſtened immediately to Rome, and after having ingenuouſly related what had happened, he obtained of the pope a ſolemn permiſſion to keep

keep both his wives. This happened in the year 1240, and in the pontificate of Gregory IX. If the holy father ſhewed himſelf indulgent, the count's wife was not leſs complaiſant; for ſhe greatly careſſed the Saracen lady, who had been the cauſe of her recovering her dear huſband, and conceived for her rival a particular tenderneſs. The Saracen princeſs made a ſuitable return to all her civilities; and being herſelf ſterile, ſhe tenderly loved the great number of children which the counteſs bore. At Gleichen is ſtill ſhewn the bed whereon the count and his two wives lay. After their death they were all three buried in the ſame tomb, as appears by the following epitaph.

'Here lie the bodies of two rival wives, who with unparalleled affection, loved each other as ſiſters, and me extremely. The one fled from Mahomet to follow her huſband; the other was willing to embrace the ſpouſe ſhe had recovered. United by the ties of matrimonial love, we had when living but one nuptial bed, and in our death only one marble covers us.'

24th. John Brownrigg was again carried before the lord mayor, charged with a miſdemeanor in beating the ſurviving girl, apprentice to his father; when it appeared, on the oath of the girl, that he had whipped her naked three ſucceſſive days with a horſe-whip, twice by order of his mother, and the third time of his own accord; becauſe ſhe had eaten two or three cheſnuts which lay in her way, and afterwards he drove her up ſtairs naked and bleeding, to ſhew his mother what he had done. He was re-committed to the Poultry Compter; upon hearing of which his mother again fell into fits, (having been free from them two days before,) and continues ill.

SUMMER ASSIZES.

At Abingdon aſſizes, two brothers were capitally convicted for a robbery.

At Appleby aſſizes, none were capitally convicted.

At Bedford aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, one of whom was reprieved.

At Bodmin aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted, of whom four were reprieved.

At Buckingham aſſizes, none were capitally convicted.

At Bury aſſizes, none were capitally convicted.

At Cambridge aſſizes, none were capitally convicted.

At Carliſle aſſizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Carmarthen aſſizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Chelmsford aſſizes, five were capitally convicted, two of whom were reprieved.

At Croydon aſſizes, ſix were capitally convicted, of whom four were reprieved.

At Derby aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but were reprieved.

At Dorcheſter aſſizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Durham aſſizes none were capitally convicted.

At Exeter aſſizes, two were capitally convicted

At Glouceſter aſſizes, three were capitally convicted, of whom one was reprieved.

At

At Hereford aſſizes, three were capitally convicted.

At the aſſizes at Lancaſter, one was capitally convicted.

At Maidſtone aſſizes, ſeven were capitally convicted, four of whom were reprieved.

At Newcaſtle aſſizes, two were capitally convicted.

At Northampton aſſizes, one was capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Northumberland aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Norwich aſſizes, five were capitally convicted; four of the rioters, who had been reſpited during pleaſure, were ordered to be tranſported for life.

At Nottingham aſſizes, five were capitally convicted, four of whom were reprieved.

At Saliſbury aſſizes, four were capitally convicted, three of whom were reprieved.

At Shrewſbury aſſizes, one was capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Stafford aſſizes, one was capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Wells aſſizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Wincheſter aſſizes, two were capitally convicted.

At Warwick aſſizes, one was capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Worceſter aſſizes, one was capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At York aſſizes, Ann Sowerby for poiſoning her huſband, was capitally convicted, and afterwards burnt; five more were capitally convicted, three of whom are reprieved.

We have an account of the following outrages and villainies from Charles-Town. Different gangs of robbers and horſe-ſtealers have lately infeſted the forks of Saludy and Savannah rivers, and committed many robberies and cruelties, among which, being queſtioned by Captain Bafard, who demanded their paſs on paſſing Canon's Creek, they preſented a piſtol, telling him there it was, and ſhot him in the breaſt, robbed him of every thing valuable, and then went to the houſe of one Wilſon, burnt him with red hot irons to diſcover his money, and there robbed him of all he had. From Denis Hayes, they took to the amount of 3000 l. brutally and luſtfully uſed his wife and daughter, ſtripped them, and left them naked. They robbed Charles Kitchen on Broad River, beat out one of his wife's eyes, and burnt the poor man moſt cruelly. On the ſame river, they ſo inhumanly beat and burnt Gabriel Brown, that his life is deſpaired of; and on Lynche's Creek Road, they met Mr. Davis, whom they tied, and tortured with red hot irons, and becauſe he had no money, they ſet fire to his houſe, and left the unhappy man to behold his all in flames. Theſe miſcreants are now become ſuch a terror to the back-ſettlers, that they are preparing to quit their habitations, and ſeek ſettlements where their lives and properties may be more ſecure.

28th. John Goodere and James Butcher were executed at Chelmsford for horſe-ſtealing. The next day a reprieve came down for Goodere; on which a report was ſpread to the diſadvantage of the principal officers concerned; but the fact was, that an application having been made in favour of Charles Harrington, condemned for burglary at the ſame aſſizes, the

the ſecretary, by his majeſty's order, ſent a reference of the caſe to the judge who tried him, and at the ſame time ſent a reſpite, to prevent accidents from any delay in receiving the judge's report. No application, however, had been made for Goodere; but the judge in reporting on the caſe of Harrington, was alſo prompted by his humanity to mention that of Goodere, whoſe crime appeared to his lordſhip leſs flagrant than that of Harrington; he therefore recommended it to his majeſty, in caſe he ſhould think proper to ſhew his royal clemency to Harrington, to extend the ſame mercy to Goodere. This report of the judge was not received at the ſecretary's office till Friday, the very day on which Goodere unfortunately ſuffered.

A comet was obſerved at Liverpool in the ſouth-eaſt quarter of the Hemiſphere, about 53 degrees above the horizon. Its tail deſcribed an angle of 30 degrees, and its direction was towards the Pleiades.

A ſilver ſtatue of the goddeſs Cybele, weighing 36 pounds, of excellent workmanſhip, was lately taken out of the Tyber, three miles below Rome.

The iſland of Cephalonia, a Grecian iſland, was almoſt overturned by an earthquake, many of the inhabitants were ſwallowed up, and thoſe who remained alive are reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs.

The cardinals Albani and Orſini, miniſters plenipotentiaries, the one from Vienna, the other from Naples, notified to the pope the approaching marriage of the archduchess Joſepha with the king of the Two Sicilies.

The emperor deſigns to accompany his ſiſter as far as Rome; and it is believed the grand duke of Tuſcany will be of the party. They have declared, in the moſt expreſs terms, that they will be incognito, and receive no viſits or ceremonies of any ſort. The pope, however, will order all ſuch diverſions and entertainments to be given that Rome can afford. A girandola will be one; and they ſay, likewiſe, an illumination of St. Peter's.

The French troops in Corſica delivered up the fortreſſes of Calvi and Ajaccio to the Genoeſe, and embarked on board ſome Spaniſh tranſports for France. The troubles in Corſica, it is computed, have already coſt the Genoeſe nine millions ſterling; and they are now leſs likely to ſubdue that brave people than they were at the beginning of the war with them. Paoli, their chief, is making great preparations for war. He has already obtained poſſeſſion of Algagliolo, and is actually beſieging the two fortreſſes which the French have evacuated.

They write from Charles-Town, South-Carolina, that his majeſty's ſhip Cygnet, Philip Durell, eſq; commander, having touched at the Havannah in her way from Penſacola, was fired at by the Spaniards from the Moro caſtle, and a 24 pounder beat through her larboard ſide. Captain Durell complaining of the inſult, was anſwered, that the king's orders were to let no Engliſh ſhip into the port. The Adventure frigate a few days after, being ſent with diſ-

diſpatches from captain Parry to the Spaniſh governor, met with the like treatment.

And they alſo write from the ſame place, that on the 24th of July arrived there from Great-Britain and the Weſt-Indies, laſt in 24 days from Penſacola, his majeſty's packet the Hillſborough, commanded by Capt. Leſſie Grove. From the length of the voyage, the captain being in want of refreſhments and other neceſſaries, went to the Havannah for a ſupply; but, on attempting to go into the harbour, after applying to the governor, had two ſhot fired at him, which were certainly deſigned to ſink him, and, had he not put immediately about, a number of cannon, ready charged and pointed, would have ſent his majeſty's ſhip to the bottom. The Spaniards ſaid no ſhip or veſſel with Britiſh colours ſhould enter that harbour. This is the third inſult the Britiſh flag has received at the ſame place within a few weeks.

Liſbon, Aug. 18. Mr. Lyttelton, who is to reſide here in quality of miniſter from his Britannic majeſty, arrived the day before yeſterday, on board an Engliſh frigate. He was introduced laſt night to Count d'Oeyras, and is forthwith to have an audience of the king and royal family.

Six veſſels are arrived in the Tagus, very richly laden; four from Fernambuco, and two from the bay of All Saints.

Madrid, Aug. 25. The court has received advice, that the Eagle frigate, which ſailed from Lima the 18th of March laſt, arrived at Cadiz the 13th inſt. with a cargo of 1,679,627 hard pieces in gold and ſilver, 5723 cheſts of cocoa, 886 quintals of copper, 187 of tin, beſides other articles.

They write from Paris, that on laſt Sunday the Dauphin entered into the 14th year of his age, and was declared to be out of his minority, but has ſince been indiſpoſed with a cold and a fever.

They write from Bourdeaux, that the duke of York, who arrived there on the 17th, had ſupped with Marſhal Richelieu, and dined with the intendant of the province, and that on the 20th his royal highneſs ſet out for Languedoc and Provence.

The Abbe Rochon, who ſailed from the road of Breſt on the 7th of April, on board the Union, commanded by count de Breughon, who went to Morocco, is returned from his voyage, having made his intended obſervations. He has viewed ſeveral eclipſes of Jupiter's Satellites with an inſtrument of his own invention, which obviates a difficulty with which theſe obſervations have been hitherto attended. The difficulty conſiſted in keeping the ſtar in view during the agitation of the ſhip, by a teleſcope magnifying not leſs than ſixty times; but with the Abbe's inſtrument, whatever be the motion of the ſhip, the ſtar can never be loſt above four ſeconds of time. It has been approved by a committee of the academy of ſciences, to whom a memoir has been ſent for examination, containing an account of the obſervations made with it.

They write from Quebec, that father Rabo, a 20th. learned

learned Jeſuit, had juſt returned from a ſecond expedition to Lake Superior, in which he traced the courſe of a great river ſome hundred leagues weſt and by north, which there was great reaſon to conjecture penetrated into the ſouth ſeas.

They write from Naples, that on the 23d of July, letters were received from Catanzanor the capital of the Higher Calabria, which bring advice, that in the night between the 14th and 15th inſt. ſeveral violent ſhocks of the earth were felt there, and that the province had ſuſtained conſiderable damage. The town of Cozcuza ſuffered much; and Luzzi, St. Agatha, and other villages, were entirely demoliſhed. About forty people were killed, and a great number wounded. The ſhocks continued till the 18th, and were felt in a direction from weſt to eaſt, from the gulph of Squillace to Gallipoli.

They write from Liſbon, that on the 24th of this month arrived in the Tagus, oppoſite to that city, a ſhalop, with an expreſs on board, diſpatched by the governor of Senegal, with orders to repair to London as ſoon as poſſible, to inform the government that a mortality rages with ſuch violence among the troops, that out of 300 men, of which they were compoſed, ſcarce 90 are remaining; and moreover, that there is a great ſcarcity of proviſions.

In another letter from Liſbon is the following obſervation, 'We think it no ſmall aggravation here, that the petty ſtate of Algiers can, at any time, terrify the haughty Portugueze into the payment of enormous ſums, merely to purchaſe a temporary truce; while Great Britain, their friend and ally, has not been able to procure even common juſtice to her trading ſubjects in this kingdom, by a four years negociation.'

By a letter from New Providence, there is advice that an Engliſh ſloop belonging to Rhode iſland, had been taken by a Spaniſh guarda coſta in the Weſt Indies, and carried into Muſketo harbour, in the iſland of Porto Rico, where the veſſel and cargo were confiſcated, and the crew thrown into priſon, on pretence of illicit trade.

Died, Edward Norris of Virginia, aged 103 years. He was 70 years pilot within the Capes.

Mr. Benjamin Perryn in Oxford road, aged 103 years.

Mrs. Darby at Great Harlock, aged 105 years.

SEPTEMBER.

1ſt. As the duke of Grafton and Mr. ſecretary Conway were returning from Cambden-place in Kent, a man of 70, much intoxicated with liquor, rolled againſt the wheel of their curricle, which threw him down and very much hurt his leg. His Grace ordered all poſſible care to be immediately taken of the man; and when he arrived in town ſent Mr. Adair, Mr. Hawkins, and Mr. Gataker to his aſſiſtance; but the wound ſoon turned to a mortification, and the man is ſince dead.

John Fiſher, eſq; was by inqueſt choſen mayor of Yarmouth.

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The inqueſt, conſiſting of 12 men, were ſhut up in the Guildhall three days and three nights before they agreed upon their choice.

There was a violent ſtorm of hail and rain, accompanied with the loudeſt thunder, and moſt dreadful flaſhes of lightning, at Genoa, ever known in the memory of man: Seven perſons were killed, and much damage done to the churches and houſes. The foremaſt and topmaſt of a Spaniſh frigate were ſo much ſhivered, that both muſt be changed, and one man was killed, and two others much hurt by the lightning.

A very remarkable cauſe was tried at Briſtol aſſizes, before Sir Joſeph Yates.—It was as follows: Mr. Bryant, of Magotsfield, ſent his ſervant with two mares to ſell at St. James's fair, 1766, where one Thomas Jackſon met him, and agreed to give him 23 guineas for them. Some difficulty ariſing how to procure the money, a perſon of the ſame gang came in at the inſtant, and bought a gelding (which Jackſon had at the door) at the ſame price he was to give for the mares. The gelding was to be ſent to the Bell-Inn in St. Thomas's-ſtreet, to one Crook, who was to pay for him; but Jackſon being lame, prevailed on Mr. Bryant's man to take him, whilſt he prepared a dinner. He accordingly went, but finding no ſuch perſon there, returned, and found that Jackſon had gone off with the mares, and countermanded the dinner. Jackſon was with much difficulty diſcovered, and this trial brought on for the recovery of the price of the mares. Great villainy appearing throughout the whole tranſaction, the mares were judged to be ſtolen, and Jackſon was immediately ſent to priſon, and Mr. Bryant and his man bound to proſecute him at our next gaol delivery.

The London Gazette of this evening contains two orders of his majeſty in council, dated the 28th ult. by the firſt of which the free importation into this kingdom of oats or oatmeal, rye or rye-meal, wheat or wheat-flour, barley or barley-meal, peas, beans, tares, callivancies, malt, bread, biſcuit, and ſtarch, from any part of Europe is permited from the expiration of the time before limited, viz. the 10th inſtant until 20 days after the commencement of the next ſeſſions of parliament. By the ſecond, the prohibition of the exportation of any ſort of corn, grain, meal, malt, flour, bread, biſcuit, or ſtarch, is further extended from the ſaid 10th inſtant, until 20 days after the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament. 5th.

The following accident happened at the Whalebone, two miles from Rumford: —— Bullock, eſq; of Stratford, and Daniel Le Gaſs, eſq; a Genoeſe merchant, returning from Rumford (where they had been taking the diverſion of ſhooting) having their guns loaded in the chaiſe with them, by ſome means one of the pieces went off, and killed Mr. Le Gaſs on the ſpot.

Between ſeven and eight o'clock in the evening, ſoon after high water, the water in the Liffy, near Dublin, ſuddenly ſunk about two feet, and in a moment after roſe upwards of four feet, and immediately

mediately fell to its proper level; on this occaſion ſeveral veſſels received conſiderable damage, by being drove from their moorings, &c. It is apprehended from this extraordinary phænomenon, that an earthquake has happened ſomewhere, as an event of the ſame kind was felt at Corke at the time of the great earthquake at Liſbon."

Much about the ſame hour, it being low tide at Oſtend, and the ſhips aground, in leſs than three minutes the flood returned with ſuch violence that it ſet all the ſhips afloat, and forced ſeveral from their anchors; and, what was very extraordinary, the mud from the bottom roſe to the ſurface, in a manner which is ſeldom ſeen in the moſt tempeſtuous weather, though at that time the air was ſerene, and the wind moderate. This tide continued turbulent about a quarter of an hour, and in ſixteen minutes after it ebbed five feet.

A model of the famous bell, vulgarly called Great Tom of Lincoln, is now actually made in order to be hung up in an antique building, the north eaſt corner of the caſtle hill in that city, for the gratification of curious ſtrangers; and the cuſtom of ſetting open the doors of the cathedral on all public occaſions, will for the future be entirely diſcontinued.

At the triennal meeting of the three choirs of Worceſter, the collection amounted to 192 l.

Gen. Monkton's regiment of foot, (the 17th) arrived at Saliſbury, having landed a few days before from New York. It conſiſted of 110 men and 17 officers only, the general having permitted all who choſe it to enliſt into other regiments. The reſt chuſing to ſtay in America enliſted.

A ſtone in the church-yard of St. Paul, Covent-garden, to the memory of James Worſdale, maſter-painter to the board of ordnance, has this inſcription upon it, written by himſelf.

Eager to get, but not to keep the pelf,
A friend to all mankind—except himſelf.

This morning a dreadful fire broke out a ſtocking- 9th. trimmer's in Tower-royal, oppoſite St. Antholin's church, Budge-row, which entirely conſumed the ſame; the flames were ſo rapid, that the maſter of the houſe and his wife were obliged to leap out of a two pair of ſtairs window into the ſtreet, when the latter, being big with child, was killed on the ſpot, and the huſband broke his thigh, two of his ribs, and was otherwiſe ſo much bruiſed that he was carried to the hoſpital without hopes of recovery: an infant of two years old was ſaved by being caught in a blanket, and the man and maid eſcaped over the tops of the houſes. By the activity of the firemen and engines, the flames were prevented from ſpreading, and thus probably preſerved the whole neighbourhood.

An uncommon phænomenon was obſerved on the water of Iſla, near Cowper-Angus preceded by a thick dark ſmoke, which ſoon diſpelled, and diſcovered a large lumi-

luminous body, like a houſe on fire, but preſently after took a form ſomething pyramidal, and rolled forwards with impetuoſity till it came to the water of Erick; up which river it took its direction with great rapidity, and diſappeared a little above Blairgowrie. The effects were as extraordinary as the appearance. In its paſſage, it carried a large cart many yards over a field of graſs; a man riding along the high road was carried from his horſe, and ſo ſtunned with the fall, as to remain ſenſeleſs a conſiderable time. It deſtroyed one half of a houſe, and left the other behind, undermined and deſtroyed an arch of the new bridge building at Blairgowrie, immediately after which it diſappeared. As few appearances of this kind ever were attended with like conſequences, various conjectures have been formed concerning it.

11th. The noted Mr. Edward Higgins took his trial at Carmarthen aſſizes, and was found guilty, and the next morning condemned. Upon being aſked by the judge, What he had to ſay why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? He anſwered, That he thought he had not a fair trial. But it ſeemed to be the opinion of all who heard it, that he was convicted on the cleareſt evidence. The trunk broke open at lady Maud's, on inſpection, was found to have a ſmall part of the key left in the lock, and the other part of the key was found on Higgins when he was taken. This was the moſt material circumſtance againſt him, though ſeveral others ſtrongly confirmed his being guilty of the burglary. It is ſaid that as ſoon as the jury brought in their verdict, guilty, he burſt into tears.

At the anniverſary meeting of the ſons of the clergy, held at Newcaſtle, the collection amounted to 315 l. 1 s. 9 d. which was diſtributed to one clergyman incapacitated, 20 clergymens widows, 14 clergymens ſons, and 41 clergymens daughters, according to their ſeveral neceſſitous circumſtances.

The Portugueſe have offered 600,000 crowns by way of ranſom for their ſlaves in Morocco, and 15,000 crowns a year to purchaſe peace, and as an acknowledgment ſo long as it ſhall laſt; and nearly the ſame offer is made to the Dey of Algiers. The Venetians, on the contrary, gave orders to their admiral Emo, that in caſe the Dey ſhould not comply with his demands of peace, he ſhould declare war, keep cruizing with the eight ſhips under his command in thoſe ſeas of Barbary, and ſink and burn all Algerine veſſels that he ſhould meet with.

The following warlike experiments are ſaid to have been lately made at Woolwich by Mr. Croſs, and were found to anſwer, but are not adopted, for particular reaſons. 1ſt. To fix gunpowder under the earth, and when trod upon to be blown up. 2. To fix gunpowder under a gate, and when opened will be blown up. 3. To fix gunpowder under the earth, and by lifting up any thing that he may lay thereon, will be blown up. 4. To fix gunpowder under the greateſt building on London ſide of the Thames, Mr. Croſs

Croſs will ſtand the oppoſite ſide and blow it up, without uſing match or train. He has brought to perfection alſo a moving battery, which is to be drawn by horſes, and is to be made uſe of in time of battle, when fifty men can withſtand one thouſand, firing cannon, ſmall arms, hand grenades, &c.

14th. An inquiſition was taken on the body of Mr. Daniel Agaſſe, of Broad-ſtreet Buildings, when it appeared, that the deceaſed being in a one-horſe chaiſe, in which alſo was Wm. Bullock, Eſq; of Stratford, each having a double-barrelled gun ſtanding by them, with which they had been ſhooting, on a ſudden jolt of the chaiſe one of the guns went off and ſhot Mr. Agaſſe dead.

Elizabeth Brownrigg was carried in a cart from Newgate, attended by two clergymen, amidſt a numerous crowd of ſpectators, and executed at Tyburn, for the murder of Mary Clifford. Her body was afterwards carried to Surgeons-hall for diſſection. Before ſhe left Newgate that morning, her huſband and ſon took leave of her in the cell. She appeared very penitent in the way to and at the place of execution, where the crowd was ſo great, that ſeveral perſons were much hurt.

They write from Moſcow, that on the 10th of Auguſt moſt of the deputies, charged to form the new code of laws, being arrived in this city from all the provinces of the empire, the commiſſion was opened with much ſolemnity, by order of the Empreſs. The deputies aſſembled, at ſeven in the morning, in the convent of Tſchudow. At ten her majeſty, wearing the imperial robe, and a coronet on her head, proceeded to church in a coach, which was followed by twenty other coaches and ſix. As ſoon as the empreſs arrived at the church, the deputies walked thither two by two, conducted by the attorney-general, holding the marſhall's ſtaff in his hand. They were preceded by the ſuperior departments of the empire, the colleges, and chanceries, which were followed by the twenty governments and particular diſtricts. After ſinging Te Deum, the archbiſhop of Twer made a pious exhortation, and all the deputies took the oath, and afterwards ſigned it with their own hands. In the mean time her majeſty withdrew to the audience chamber, where the attorney-general conducted the deputies to the foot of the throne, in the ſame order as before.

16th. The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey. At this ſeſſions 118 priſoners were tried, ſix of whom were capitally convicted; two to be tranſported for 14 years, 55 for ſeven years, four branded, and four whipped. James Brownrigg, and John his ſon, were indicted for aſſaulting Mary Mitchel, their ſurviving apprentice, in ſtripping and whipping her. They are to be tried next ſeſſions at Guildhall.

Thomas Bowers and Iſaac Hills, the porters concerned together in carrying off 2000l. from Meſſ. Paynes, bankers in Lombard-ſtreet, which they were intruſted to carry to the Nottingham waggon, were tried at this aſſize, and ſentenced to be tranſported.

William Gueſt, lately belonging to the bank, was convicted of high-

high-treaſon, in filing and diminiſhing his majeſty's coin. This unfortunate gentleman's counſel moved, in arreſt of judgment, but their plea was over-ruled.

A ſhoemaker's lad, having found a baſket in the ſtreets with ſomething packed up in it, carried it home to his maſter, who, on opening it, being enraged to find in it a new-born child, threw it out of a two-pair-of-ſtairs window, by which it was killed.

At Worceſter fair old hops ſold from 5l. 10s. to 7l. 10s. There were only eleven pockets of new hops, the quality of which was very bad, the price 7l. to 9l. Laſt year's fair near 3000 pockets were ſold, and the duty amounted to upwards of 21,000l. but this year it will not be 300l. The failure of the fruit is as great as that of the hops. Cheeſe ſold from 24s. to 27s. the long hundred.

17th. Was held a court at Chriſt's hoſpital, when the preſident declared that a benefaction of 200l. had been received from Sir James Cockburn, Bart. upon which the thanks of the court and a ſtaff was voted to that gentleman. Dr. Pitcairne received his charge as a governor, as did John Small, Eſq; who gave 100l. The report from the committee of almoners was alſo read, in relation to the reſidue of the eſtate of Mr. John Butteris, late of Hertford, amounting to 5461. which he bequeathed to the hoſpital, on condition, that the corporation might have always one child there; and it was unanimouſly agreed to accept the ſame.

The foundation-ſtone of a new infirmary at Saliſbury was laid, amidſt a numerous concourſe of people. On this occaſion the principal nobility and perſons of diſtinction (ſubſcribers to the infirmary) dined together, and all expreſſed the utmoſt zeal to ſupport a charity that has for its object the relief of the unfortunate poor, of whatever county they be.

A great mortality prevails in the Britiſh ſettlements on the African coaſt; and a number of troops are preparing to embark, to ſupply the place of thoſe that have been carried off.

An oak tree was lately felled near Ludlow in Shropſhire, the produce of which were 37 tons of timber, 43 cords of wood, 200 park-pales, and five cords of brackets. A bough broke off before the tree was cut down, which weighed ſeven tons and an half, and three men were employed a month in ſtocking it. The whole tree was valued at 140l.

Sarah Langford was tried at the ſeſſions of the peace held at Briſtol, for impriſoning Jane Bryant in a box, and reducing her to a moſt deplorable condition. She was found guilty, and ſentenced to ſuffer twelve months impriſonment, and to pay a fine of 13s. 4d.

22d. The Prince of Orange took leave of the States-General on Friday laſt. He left the Hague early on Saturday with a numerous retinue, and arrived at Loo the ſame day, where he continued Sunday and yeſterday; and this morning ſet out for Brunſwick, where he will ſtay two or three days, and then proceed to Potſdam by way of Magdebourg; and it is ſaid, the marriage will be celebrated at Berlin on the 4th of October.

The

25th. The fellows, &c. of the college of phyſicians, had a meeting and a dinner at their college in Warwick-lane; and in the afternoon a great number of gentlemen, licentiates of the college, (between whom and the fellows there has been a ſtrong diſpute) went to the college, and not being admitted, forced the gates, and then with the aſſiſtance of a ſmith forced the door of the college, and ruſhed in upon the fellows; ſome of the gentlemen broke ſeveral of the windows to pieces with their canes, which cauſed great confuſion; but after ſome time they broke up without further violence.

The palm-tree, known by the name of the Palma Japonica, which flowered and produced fruit in the garden of the Schonbrun at Vienna in 1765, and which is now 113 years old, has again bloſſomed this year, as has likewiſe another of the ſame ſpecies, 56 years old. The foreign and rare plant, called the Arbor Draconis Cluſii, has likewiſe bloſſomed; and the fruit, about the bigneſs of a cherry, and of an orange yellow colour, ſhews fair to ripen, which it is ſuppoſed is the firſt time they have arrived at ſuch perfection in Europe.

They write from Liſbon, that on Sunday laſt an Auto de fe was celebrated there, in which eleven men and three women received ſentence. Not one was condemned to die; and moſt of them were convicted of offences, for which much heavier puniſhments would have been inflicted on them, had they been proceeded againſt in the king's temporal courts. Since his moſt faithful majeſty's acceſſion, the burning of heretics has been diſuſed.

A detachment of the Elector of Bavaria's troops deſtroyed a mill which ſtood on the ſide of the Danube, belonging to the biſhop of Ratiſbon, which, it is thought, will cauſe much bloodſhed.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

Whitehall, Sept. 29.

On Sunday laſt captain Wrotteſly arrived here from Monaco, with the melancholy account, That his royal highneſs Edward Auguſtus, duke of York and Albany, died at that place on the 17th inſtant, about eleven o'clock in the morning, of a malignant fever, after a ſevere illneſs of fourteen days, to the great grief of their majeſties and all the royal family. The body was opened and embalmed; and was ordered by commodore Spry to be put on board his majeſty's ſhip Montreal, captain Coſby, to be brought to England.

The following are ſome of the particulars that are related, and ſaid to be authentic, of the ſickneſs and death of his royal highneſs the duke of York.

His royal highneſs had danced rather too much at the chateau of a perſon of faſhion; and this had not only fatigued him, but occaſioned a very ſtrong perſpiration. As ſoon as the ball was finiſhed, the prince gave orders for his carriages to be got ready immediately, to ſet off for Toulon, from whence he was diſtant ſome three or four leagues. The gentlemen of the train, colonels Morriſon and St. John, and captain Wrotteſly, earneſtly repreſented to his royal highneſs the neceſſity of his remaining where he was, if not to go to

bed, yet till he was cool and had ſhifted himſelf. The prince declared there was no actual occaſion for ſuch caution; that he would wrap himſelf up in his cloak, and that would be ſufficient; he did ſo, and ſtepped into his carriage.——This was on the 29th of Auguſt. The next day his royal highneſs complained of a ſlight chilineſs and ſhivering: the indiſpoſition, however, appeared ſo very trifling, that he went at night to the comedy; but before it was over, his royal highneſs found himſelf infinitely worſe, and was obliged to withdraw. He was feveriſh, thirſty, and complained of an immoderate heat all over his body. By proper care, and drinking plentifully, the duke was greatly better in the morning, and therefore ſet forward for Monaco, the prince of which (who was perſonally acquainted with his royal highneſs in his former tour to Italy) was waiting there in expectation of the honour of a viſit from him; and the duke was the rather inclined to accelerate his journey thither, as in that prince's palace he might naturally look for an aſſiſtance and accommodation ſuperior to what he could reaſonably hope to meet with in common places.

The weather happened to be uncommonly hot, which not a little incommoded his royal highneſs: he nevertheleſs arrived at Monaco in good ſpirits, but yet feveriſh, and with an head-ach; the latter of which he imputed principally to the intenſe heat of the ſun that whole day. The next day the duke was worſe, and took to his bed entirely. In hopes of a recovery, and unwilling to unneceſſarily alarm the king, his royal parent, and relations, the duke enjoined his attendants on no account to write concerning his illneſs to England. All poſſible advice and aſſiſtance was given, but to no purpoſe; the fever was unconquerable. His royal highneſs now ſaw the danger of his ſituation; and he ſaw it with a fortitude and reſignation rarely to be met with, where bloom of youth and dignity of ſtation are united! Convinced that, without ſome unexpected turn in his diſtemper, he muſt die, his royal highneſs, with the utmoſt calmneſs and compoſure of mind, adjuſted every ſtep conſequent of the fatal event himſelf. His royal highneſs ordered that Capt. Wrotteſly ſhould bring the news to England, and in what method it ſhould be diſcloſed. The captain was firſt to wait on Mr. Le Grand, of Spring-gardens, and with him to go to Leiceſter-houſe, and then to Glouceſter-houſe, and, having communicated the event to the dukes his brothers, to proceed to their majeſties, ſubmitting it to the king and queen in what manner and by whom it ſhould be imparted to his royal parent. After his royal highneſs had ſettled this arrangement, he ſeemed remarkably eaſy. He declared himſelf perfectly reſigned to the divine will; and he ſpoke of his diſſolution with all the piety and reſolution of a Chriſtian and a man; acting up to thoſe exalted characters to his lateſt breath. His royal highneſs, through the mercy of the great Creator, was ſenſible to his laſt moment; and the very morning of his death dictated a letter to

their

their majeſties, his illuſtrious parent, and the royal family; deſiring the writer to expedite it, as he had but a few minutes to ſpare, and thoſe to employ in ſtill more momentous concerns.

Before his royal highneſs died, we are told, that he ordered all the gentlemen of his retinue to his bed-ſide, where he took a very affectionate leave of them; and deſired that, as he could not poſſibly live many hours longer, his bliſters might be taken off to give him a little eaſe in his laſt moments; which, it is ſaid, was done accordingly.

The following paragraph is ſaid to be extracted from a letter written by col. St. John (dated at Monaco the 17th ult.) to his royal highneſs the duke of Glouceſter. —'The incloſed letter is of your royal brother's inditing: and which he affectingly deſired me to go on with as faſt as ever I was able, leſt his ſenſes ſhould fail him before I got to the end.'

Among many other particulars related upon this melancholy occaſion, the following ſeem alſo to be authenticated. 'His royal highneſs had not taken to his bed above two or three days before col. Morriſon alſo found himſelf exceeding ill. The duke inſiſted on the colonel's declining his attendance on him, and that he ſhould keep his own chamber. The colonel humbly begged permiſſion to continue in the performance of his duty. His royal highneſs, nevertheleſs, was ſtill very preſſing; moſt amiably and benevolently urging, 'Morriſon, thy life is of much conſequence, the preſervation of it is of more importance than mine; you have a family, (the colonel is married, and has ſix children) be careful of your health for their ſakes.' However, col. Morriſon importuned ſo ſtrongly, that the duke, at length, acquieſced. His royal highneſs had a very high opinion of James's fever-powder, and lamented the omitting having ſome along with him. In this dilemma ſomebody recollected that captain Schutz, an Engliſh gentleman who had been ſome time in Italy for the recovery of his health, had mentioned the having ſome with him. An expreſs was immediately diſpatched to the captain, which returned in a day or two with a pacquet of it. The firſt doſe had a very good effect, cauſing a moſt plentiful perſpiration; the ſecond doſe was given, but no good conſequence enſued; the diſorder increaſed. After a proper interval, his royal highneſs deſired to have a third, declaring he ſhould cheriſh no farther expectations of life, if that ſhould likewiſe fail. The third doſe was unhappily (for what medicine is infallible!) as unſucceſsful as the preceding one, the fever having gained too great an aſcendancy. His royal highneſs was deſirous of being attended by a Proteſtant clergyman, and expreſſes were ſent to ſeveral ſea-ports, diſtant as well as neighbouring, in hopes of meeting with ſome ſhips of commodore Spry's ſquadron, on board of which might be a chaplain; but the ſearch was fruitleſs. Several portions of Scripture, particularly from the Pſalms, and many of them of the duke's own pointing out, were however read, at various times, to his royal highneſs.

The morning his royal high-

neſs died, he called Mr. Murray, his firſt page, to his bedſide; he aſked him ſome queſtions, gave him ſome particular directions and advice, and took a moving leave of him; even in dying, his royal highneſs ſhewed the moſt zealous affection for him: 'Ah, Murray! (ſaid he) thou wilt loſe thy maſter!'

An order was ſent to the managers of both theatres to ſuſpend acting on account of the death of the duke of York.

His majeſty's ſhip Montreal ſet ſail from Villa Franca, for England, with the remains of his R. H. the duke of York.

The order for the mourning is the ſame as it was for the late duke of Cumberland.

30th. At the anniverſary meeting of the college of phyſicians, Sir William Browne reſigned the chair, and propoſed Dr. Thomas Lawrence to be preſident for the year enſuing, who was accordingly elected; as were alſo Dr. Aſkew, Dr. Munckley, Dr. Thomas, and Dr. Brooke, cenſors; Dr. Hinckley, treaſurer; and Dr. Aſkew, regiſter. On this occaſion the licentiates demanded admittance, which was not complied with. A ſmith was offered ten guineas, and an indemnification of 300l. to force the gates; which he refuſed.

Several inn-keepers have, during the courſe of this month, been informed againſt for not having the word *Wine* put over their doors, according to act of parliament. The penalty is 30s.

The following is ſaid to be the cauſe of the late diſputes in Warwick-lane.

The colleges of phyſicians in London, Dublin, and Edinburgh, are by charter inveſted with a power of calling before them all phyſicians, not educated at the reſpective univerſities, who practiſe phyſic within their precincts; to examine, and, if found duly qualified, to licenſe them. It was always, until of late, underſtood, that ſuch licentiates had no right to demand admiſſion to fellowſhips; and that, whenever this was done, it was not granted in compliance with a claim, but conferred ſpeciali gratia. Upon thoſe occaſions the college of London made uſe of the expedient of procuring, for ſuch licentiate, a mandamus degree from Oxford or Cambridge, which intitled him to a ſeat as fellow.

Though ſuch favours were beſtowed but ſparingly, the licentiates ſeemed to acquieſce under regulations which were ſuppoſed to be warranted by charter: but the fellows having lately enacted a bye-law, excluding from all proſpect of being fellows, ſuch of the licentiates as had at any time practiſed ſurgery: (though it appears from formers liſts of the London fellows, that this was not always conſidered as a ſufficient objection) the licentiates were alarmed and offended at the ſtigma fixed on a number of their members, many of whom bear a very diſtinguiſhed rank in medical reputation and practice; and being aſſured by their council, learned in the law, that their previous admiſſion as licentiates gave them a claim to fellowſhips, they have taken the extraordinary method, taken notice of in the public papers, of vindicating and aſſerting this their ſuppoſed claim. How far this claim is founded in juſtice,

or

or whether it can be ſupported by law, the event alone muſt determine.

On the 8th of this month, in the evening, the duke de St. Elizabeth, the Neapolitan ambaſſador extraordinary, went in ſtate to the caſtle of Sconbrun. He was firſt admitted to an audience of the emperor, and then to that of the empreſs-queen, of whom he made a ſolemn demand of the archduchefs Maria-Joſepha in marriage for the king his maſter. After this, her royal highneſs was introduced into the audience chamber, on which ſhe made a deep curteſy to her auguſt mother, who informed her ſhe had given her conſent to the demand that had been made. Then the archduchefs received from the ambaſſador a letter from his Sicilian majeſty, and a picture of that monarch, which was immediately faſtened to her royal highneſs's breaſt by the miſtreſs of her houſehold, the counteſs of Lerchenfeld. There was a ball at night, opened by the emperor and the future queen, and afterwards a ſupper of ſeveral tables.

They write from Florence, that the great duke and ducheſs have now fixed their reſidence for the winter in the palace in town, where all the diſpoſitions have been made for the reception of the emperor and queen of Naples, whoſe ſuite is ſo great, that apartments in four large convents, as well as many others in private houſes, have been appropriated for them.

Mount Veſuvius has been much agitated of late, continually throwing up great quantities of inflamed matter with exploſions; and though it has been rather more quiet for theſe two days paſt, it is thought the firſt rains will increaſe the fermentation, and that it will diſcharge itſelf in a lava. The aſhes and ſtones, which it has thrown up, have added at leaſt ſixty feet to the height of the mountain ſince the end of June laſt.

On the 28th inſtant the queen of Denmark was formally declared to be with child; and orders were given accordingly for public prayers to be offered up to heaven for her happy delivery.

The court of Spain has been greatly alarmed by a misfortune which happened on the 7th inſtant to the prince of Aſturias, who fell with his horſe, and diſlocated his ſhoulder; but it was ſoon after ſet, and his Royal Highneſs blooded; ſo that no bad conſequence is apprehended.

Died, in Maryland, Francis Ange, aged 134 years. He was born at Stratford upon Avon, remembered the death of K. Charles I. and left England ſoon after. At the age of 130 he was in perfect health; his wife, aged 80, had a ſon by him not then 27 years old; and, at the time of his death, his faculties were perfect, and his memory ſtrong.

At Sunbury, Mrs. Fulcher, aged 100 years.

At Abinghall in Glouceſterſhire, John James, aged 101 years.

At Wooton Baſſet, John Haynes, aged 105 years.

At Greenwich, Downes Twyford, Eſq; aged 100 years.

At Cobham in Surry, Robert Forreſt, aged 100 years.

Robert Partin, aged 93 years, one of the oldeſt pilots in England.

Elizabeth Parker, near Moorfields, aged 103. When young,

ſhe was ſtolen from her parents, her eyes put out, and carried about by two beggars to move charity.

OCTOBER.

1ſt. The parliament, which ſtood prorogued to the 7th inſtant, was farther prorogued to Tueſday the 24th of November, then to ſit for the diſpatch of buſineſs.

A ſteward belonging to M. Buſſy, of France, has diſappeared, after robbing him of 5 or 600,000 livres.

At Retford fair, in Nottinghamſhire, the prices of new hops were from 9l. to 10l. 17s. 6d.

Agnes Doughal was found guilty, at the ſeſſions of juſticiary for Glaſgow, of cutting her child's throat; but ſome diſpute ariſing between the ſheriff of the county and the magiſtrates of the city, concerning the right of attending her execution, the ſame has been ſuſpended.

We have the following extraordinary account from Winburne in Dorſetſhire. A few days ago died here Roger Gill, ſhoemaker, and one of our ſinging-men, aged about 67, remarkable for chewing his meat or cud twice over, as an ox, ſheep, or cow, &c. As it is very ſingular, his caſe will be ſomewhat amuſing to the reader. He ſeldom made any breakfaſt in his latter days; he generally dined about twelve or one o'clock, eat pretty heartily and quickly, without much chewing or maſtication. He never drank with his dinner, but afterwards about a pint of ſuch malt liquors as he could get; but no ſort of ſpirituous liquor in any ſhape, except a little punch, but never cared for that. He uſually began his ſecond chewing about a quarter or half an hour, ſometimes later, after dinner; when ever morſel came up ſucceſſively, ſweeter and ſweeter to the taſte. Sometimes a morſel would prove offenſive and crude, in which caſe he ſpit it out. The chewing continued uſually about an hour or more, and ſometimes would leave him a little while, in which caſe he would be ſick at ſtomach, troubled with the heart-burn, foul breath, &c. ſmoaking tobacco would ſometimes ſtop his chewing, but was never attended with any ill conſequence. But on the 10th of June laſt this faculty entirely left him, and the poor man remained in great tortures till the time of his death.

3d. The managers of the theatres received an order for opening them again on Monday.

4th. His Pruſſian majeſty ſent the order of the black eagle of Pruſſia, with a fine diamond ſtar (valued at 40,000l.) to his Serene Highneſs the Prince of Orange; and in the evening the marriage of her royal highneſs the Princeſs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina of Pruſſia, with that Prince, was ſolemnized in the palace at Berlin, when the nuptial benediction was given by the Rev. Mr. Sack, firſt chaplain to the king of Pruſſia. The entertainments, that ſucceeded, were ſplendid, gay, and magnificent.

The extraordinary diet of Poland was opened with the uſual ſolemnity. The king made a pathetic ſpeech, exhorting them to concord. They ſat till four in the afternoon; met again the next day;

day; but as the affair of the Diſſidents came upon the carpet, they adjourned.

A great ſnow fell in the Peake in Derbyſhire, which lay 13 inches deep upon the ground.

6th. At a court of aldermen, a repreſentation from Sir Theodore Janſſen, city chamberlain, praying leave to appoint a deputy for a few weeks, his phyſicians having adviſed him to go to Bath, for the recovery of his health, was taken into conſideration; when it was determined that the court could not empower any ſubſtitute to exerciſe the magiſterial part of that office.

The firſt ſtone of the intended bridge over the river Tyne, at Hexham, was laid by Sir Walter Blackett, who walked at the head of the proceſſion of the principal gentlemen, freeholders, and free-maſons of that town and neighbourhood, from the market-place to Tyne-Green, with colours flying, drums beating, &c. and the bells kept ringing. After the ceremony of fixing the ſtone, the gentlemen returned in the like order, and were generouſly invited to an elegant entertainment at the Abbey, provided by Sir Walter.

This day the Jewiſh feaſt of tabernacles commenced.

8th. They have had the greateſt flood at Mancheſter ever known. The rivers Merſey and Irwel overflowed ſeveral fields on each ſide their banks; large quantities of hay and corn were borne away, and the damage ſuſtained at Salford-Quay, in ſugars, ſpirituous liquors, dye-ſtuff, &c. damaged and deſtroyed, is ſuppoſed to amount to ſeveral hundred pounds. His grace the duke of Bridgewater's canal received no damage. At Stratford, the bridge belonging to the caſſoon, was forced from its foundation, and the rubbiſh going along with the water, was left upon the adjacent fields, and quite altered their appearance. At Bolen, the bridge which carried the canal over that river, had one third part carried away, but no other material damage enſued; the works at this place are reckoned as grand as thoſe at Worſley, and the damage done at the two places, is computed at about 2000 l.

A letter is juſt publiſhed at Paris, from Don Emanuel d'Amas, viceroy of Peru, to the king of Spain, bearing date the 6th of September, 1766, by which he informs his Catholic Majeſty, 'that the Jeſuit Prieſts have a warehouſe in the city of Lima, where moſt of the agents of South America reſide, and whither all ſorts of merchandize are ſent for ſale in that country; and that they have like warehouſes in the other cities, in order to carry on an univerſal, and, indeed, an excluſive commerce; for, paying no contribution, and being at very little expence, they find a quick ſale for their goods, and take ready money; leaving only for the lay-merchants the debts and failures of thoſe who purchaſe on credit.' In ſhort, the griefs contained in the viceroy's letter, joined to the difficulties the king of Portugal met with when he attempted to reform the Jeſuits, might have been alone ſufficient to oblige his Catholic Majeſty to get rid of ſo irreligious and prejudicial a body.

The juſticiary rotation for Southwark was opened at the 9th. Town-hall on St. Margaret's-hill, by which regulation one juſtice will

will be in attendance from ten in the morning to one in the afternoon, every day in the week, Sundays excepted.

The new hospital near Pancras was opened for the reception of patients to be inoculated for the small-pox.

The high frosty winds, and great fall of rain, have retarded the harvest so much in the north, that great quantities of oats, peafe, and beans, were this day in the neighbourhood of Newcaſtle, uncut. Cheviot-hills, and the high lands to the weſt end of that town, were two days before covered with ſnow, and an exceſſive rain on the 9th raiſed the Tyne many feet.

They write from Birmingham that there fell ſo great a quantity of ſnow on the hills in Derbyſhire and Cheſhire, that on its melting it caufed great floods in thoſe parts, particularly laſt Thurſday at Northwitch the waters were ſo high, that the inhabitants went about the ſtreets in boats.

11th. The court of France went into mourning 11 days for the duke of York.—Gaz.

This morning about two o'clock a fire broke out at Mr. Pitt's, a grocer, in High Holborn, which in a ſhort time entirely conſumed the ſame, with all the ſtock in trade, and the adjoining houſe, and greatly damaged five others. The flames were ſo rapid, that the inhabitants had but juſt time to eſcape with their lives; a maid ſervant and a boy belonging to the grocer being miſſing, it is feared they periſhed in the flames.

They write from Leeds, that laſt Thurſday morning they had the largeſt flood that has been known in that neighbourhood for many years occaſioned by an exceſſive fall of rain weſtward of them the preceding day and night, by which a deal of damage was done to the lands adjoining to the river.—But the damage was much more conſiderable upon the river Calder, where the riſe was ſo great and ſudden, that ſeveral perſons were obliged to climb into trees to ſave themſelves from being carried away by the torrent; the new navigation from Wakefield to Hallifax has ſuffered much; and the crops of ſeveral whole fields of oats and beans in that neighbourhood are entirely ſwept away.—One perſon at Peniſton has loſt near 20l. worth of oats; and the accounts received of the damage done in ſeveral other parts of the country, by this inundation, are almoſt incredible.

Letters alſo from Denbighſhire in North-Wales, Sheffield, Stockport, Stratford, and Warrington, mention incredible damage to have been ſuſtained in thoſe parts from very great and extraordinary floods.

13th. The prince Stadtholder having notified in form the completion of his marriage with the princeſs Wilhelmina of Pruſſia, to the different colleges of the government reſiding here, that agreeable event was yeſterday made known at the Hague by the firing of cannon, diſplaying of flags, and by other demonſtrations of joy; and prince Lewis of Brunſwick gave an entertainment upon the occaſion to a great number of the principal perſons of the country. Their ſerene and royal highneſſes the prince and princeſs of Orange were to leave Berlin yeſterday; and as they will reſt at Potzdam, Brunſwick,

wick, Loo, and Soeſdyck, in their way home, they are not expected at the houſe in the wood before the 3d of November, when the rejoicings here will begin again. The ſtates of Frieſland have ſet the example to the other provinces, by voting an annuity to the princeſs of Orange; and it is probable that other preſents will be made by other provinces, to ſhew their ſatisfaction upon this occaſion.

Four human ſkeletons were dug up in a gravel-pit in Barnſby-field, near Pocklington, in Yorkſhire; three were without coffins, the fourth was incloſed in a coffin, with an urn at the head, after the manner of the ancient Romans, on the outſide of which were engraved ſeveral ancient characters: The coffin mouldered into duſt as ſoon as expoſed to the air.

His excellency lord viſcount Townſhend, lord lieutenant of Ireland, arrived at Dublin, and was received by the lord mayor, aldermen, ſheriffs, and commons, in their formalities.

14th. William Gueſt, for filing guineas; John Spires and William Bryan, for the highway; and Thomas Davis, for burglary, were executed at Tyburn. Mr. Gueſt was drawn in a ſledge to the gallows, and after the three others were tied up, he got into the cart; he was not tied up immediately, but was indulged to pray on his knees, attended by the ordinary, and another clergyman of the church of England: He joined in prayers with the clergyman with the greateſt devotion, and his whole deportment was ſo pious, grave, manly, and ſolemn, as to draw tears from the greateſt part of the numerous ſpectators.

15th. The archduchefs Maria Joſepha, the intended queen of Naples, died of the ſmall-pox, at the caſtle of Schonbrun near Vienna. She was taken ill the 4th inſtant, and there were the greateſt hopes of her recovery a few days ago; but laſt night, the diſtemper took a ſudden and fatal turn. The pock, which had never filled as it ſhould do, ſunk and ſtruck in, and there ſoon appeared manifeſt indications of an inward mortification. This day, about ſeven o'clock in the evening, ſhe expired, after a long and painful agony. She had frequent lucid intervals, knew the danger, and met her fate with the calmeſt fortitude, ſeeming to feel nothing ſo much as the affliction ſhe cauſed, which ſhe endeavoured to alleviate, by repeatedly begging the emperor and empreſs (who continued with her till the laſt moment) to remember, that at any rate ſhe was ſoon to have been ſeparated from them for ever.

16th. At Wayhill fair, which ended this day, hops ſold from 8 l. to 12 l. and ſome as high as 14 l. Many, however, remained unſold.

The lord mayor, ſheriffs, and commons of Dublin, came to the following reſolution, That the obtaining a law for limiting the duration of parliament, under proper qualifications, would be of the higheſt advantage to that kingdom in general, and to the city of Dublin in particular; and that it will be adviſeable for that city to take all conſtitutional meaſures for the procuring ſuch a law.

The journeymen weavers in Spital-fields have aſſembled in a riotous manner, cut the work out of ſeveral looms, and done other da-

damage on account of the prices of their work being reduced. The guards were called in to quell the rioters, but the damage they had done is ſaid to exceed 1000 l.

There died lately, at his houſe in Wapping, aged 84 years, the noted Mr. Daniel Day; equally remarkable as an humoriſt, and for his great ſkill in mechanics. He was the firſt promoter and founder of Fair Lop fair in Hannault foreſt, in the county of Eſſex, which was held the firſt Friday in July, every year; where he has for forty years eat beans and bacon, under a certain tree; he conſtantly walked to and from, while his ſtrength would admit; his dreſs was a blue ſerge waiſtcoat and breeches embroidered with needle-work: the laſt eight years, as he grew feeble, he went in a coach attended by a fidler. He endeavoured to make the fair ſtatute, but could not ſucceed, or would have been buried under the tree, and ordered a monument to his memory; but to ſhow his great regard for the tree, and its ſituation, he procured a limb, of which has been made a coffin, which he has had by him many years, in which he often uſed to lie down, to ſee if it fitted him. He has ordered his body to be laid in Barking church-yard, (the pariſh in which the tree is) to be carried by water attended by his men, with white gloves and aprons, each man to have 2 s. and 6 d. and a full pot. His fortune, which was eaſy, he kept in the bank, as he always declared againſt intereſt for money, and uſed to quote a paſſage out of the Pſalms, "he that putteth not out his money to uſury, nor taketh reward againſt the innocent, he that doth theſe things ſhall never be moved."

Ham mills, near Newbery, Berks, were burnt to the water's edge, ſuppoſed to be maliciouſly ſet on fire. The damage is eſtimated at 2000 l. 18th.

A dreadful fire broke out about midnight on the 26th of September at Conſtantinople at the houſe of a Milaneſe taylor, who periſhed in the flames, which ſpread and raged with great violence for ſix hours, notwithſtanding the grand ſignor, grand vizir, and great officers of the Porte, aſſiſted in giving orders, and encouraging the firemen and janiſſaries with money, to exert their utmoſt efforts for extinguiſhing the flames. Their progreſs was ſtopped on one ſide of the way at the church and convent of St. Anthony, being a ſtone building, and at the other by the vacancy of an houſe, which had not been rebuilt after a former fire. If it had not been a very calm night, the whole ſuburb, which is of large extent, would probably have been laid in aſhes. Fifty houſes are entirely conſumed, moſt of them large ones, inhabited chiefly by Frank merchants, and by Drugomen, with ſome ſhops. The palaces of the Dutch ambaſſador, the Neapolitan envoy, and the Ruſſian reſident, two houſes of the Engliſh factory, and a ſmall Roman Catholic convent, were burnt down.

James Brownrigg, and John his ſon, were tried at Guildhall, on two ſeparate indictments, for aſſaulting, whipping, and ill-treating Mary Mitchell, the ſurviving apprentice girl of the ſaid James; when they were both found 19th.

found guilty, and recommitted to Newgate, in order to receive ſentence at the enſuing ſeſſions at the Old Bailey. The jury recommended the father to mercy. The ſon appeared to be very ill and weak, and ſo deaf, that it was with much difficulty he could be made to underſtand the queſtions put to him.

Two time-pieces, or ſea-watches, one made by M. le Roi, the other by Mr. Berthaud, were examined and compared before the royal academy at Paris, with the principles of that made by Mr. Harriſon of London, and the preference, as might be expected, given to the French watches.

A perſon in the neighbourhood of Plymouth having loſt ſome calves, upon opening them found the paſſages full of worms.

21ſt. The ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, came to a reſolution to give Mr. Phillips one hundred pounds for his important diſcoveries of the method of dying leather red and yellow; the colours are allowed to be ſuperior to any imported from Morocco or Liſbon, and upon repeated experiments are found to be more durable.

23d. The ſeſſions ended at the Old Bailey. At this ſeſſions 7 received ſentence of death; one, tranſportation for 14 years; 30, for ſeven years; 4 to be whipped, and 3 fined and impriſoned. — James Brownrigg and John his ſon, were ſentenced to pay a fine of 1 s. each, and to be impriſoned in Newgate ſix months; at the expiration of which, to enter into recognizances for their good behaviour for ſeven years —It appeared on the trial that James Brownrigg had twice dipped Mary Mitchell's head in a water-tub, once broke the griſtle of her ear with a walking-ſtick, and once horſe-whipped her, but not naked: In anſwer to which he ſaid, he owned the dipping her head in water, but denied ſtriking her over the ear; urged ſeveral inſtances of her miſbehaviour; pleaded the good character given him by five apprentices; and added, that ſome of his boarders muſt have known ſomething of the alledged ill-treatment; but, on account of their circumſtances, he did not chuſe to call them. The ſon was indicted for whipping Mary Mitchell three days ſucceſſively naked; the two firſt times were by the mother's order, the laſt of his own accord, for taking ſome cheſnuts: he ſaid in his defence, that the girl never lay ill of his beating, and that he had taught her to read.

An order of council was iſſued, importing that his majeſty having received information that the price of wheat in the port of London, has been, for two ſucceſſive market-days, above 48 s. the quarter; his majeſty therefore prohibits the making, extracting, or diſtilling of any kind of low wines or ſpirits from any wheat, wheat-meal, wheat-flour, and wheat-bran, or any mixture therewith, until 14 days after the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament.

29th. On Wedneſday morning, between eight and nine o'clock, his majeſty's ſhip Montreal arrived at St. Helen's, with the corpſe of his late royal highneſs the duke of York, where ſhe laid to almoſt half an hour, while ſhe received her orders from the Tweed, which was ſtationed there for that purpoſe, in caſe the Montreal

ſhould

ſhould touch there. After ſhe had received her orders, ſhe ſtood to the eaſtward of the Downs. At firſt, when ſhe appeared in ſight, ſhe hoiſted the royal ſtandard half ſtaff high, and fired minute guns, which were anſwered by the Tweed. The minute guns at the Tower are to fire, and his royal highneſs's corpſe is to be brought up the river to the Jeruſalem Chamber; but if it ſhould not arrive till after three in the afternoon, then to lay in ſtate at Greenwich one night.

It is reported, that in the Jeſuits college at Barcelona, in Spain, were found riches to the amount of twelve millions of crowns. It conſiſted of ſeveral tons of gold and ſilver, a large quantity of gold duſt, emeralds and diamonds, crowns of gold ornamented with brilliants and rubies, ſome bales of Cocoa, and ſome rich merchandize from the Eaſt Indies.

A dreadful earthquake ruined the iſle of Cephalonia, and almoſt deſtroyed the city of Zante, in the Levant. The inhabitants had been alarmed by former ſhocks, and had taken to tents and boats, to paſs their time in the fields and on the river; by which precaution many lives were ſaved: but their conſternation and diſtreſs is inexpreſſible.

A law has been publiſhed at Stockholm, declaring, that in conſequence of the meaſures taken by the ſtates and their ſecret committee in the laſt Diet, the courſe of exchange ſhould be fixed, for the year 1768, at 42 marks copper for a rixdollar, Hamburgh banco, and proportionably for all other money; forbidding any perſon to bargain for bills at a higher price after the firſt of January next, under the penalties preſcribed by the law which fixed the exchange in 1766.

The laſt week has exhibited ſcenes of the greateſt horror in Italy, the eruption of Mount Veſuvius having continued with great violence: Many fine vineyards are deſtroyed, and ſome villas; but his Sicilian majeſty's palace and the muſeum of Portici have eſcaped, by the lava's taking another courſe, when it was within a mile and a half of them. The concuſſions of the air from the exploſions of the mountain were ſo violent, that many doors and windows, even at Naples, were forced open by them. The exploſions and concuſſions of the air were moſt terrible on Thurſday. The noiſe generally continued, each time, between five and ſix hours, and then ceaſed as ſuddenly as it began. The ſtones thrown up by theſe exploſions were of an enormous ſize, and were thrown between five and ſix hundred feet high, and many of them fell more than half a mile from the crater. The clouds which iſſued from the mouth of the volcano, and hung over it, ſtriking one againſt the other, occaſioned continual flaſhes of forked lightning, the thunder of which was heard when the mountain was ſilent. The mountain is now calm, and the lavas no longer run. This eruption is univerſally allowed to be the moſt violent that has happened this century, both as to the loudneſs of the exploſions, which were heard above thirty miles from Naples, and to the quantity of lava. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the confuſion the city of Naples has been in for a week paſt.

The

The late general Pulteney, is ſaid to have deviſed by his will the following legacies: To the hon. William Pulteney, eſq; who married his niece, only daughter of the late Daniel Pulteney, eſq; the youngeſt brother of the late earl of Bath, and who changed his name from Johnſtone to Pulteney, his two large eſtates, one of which is 14,000l. per ann. and the other 12,000 l. per ann. To the right honourable the earl of Darlington, 150,000 l. in money, in the ſtocks. To the hon. Frederick Vane, and Raby Vane, eſqrs. brothers to the Earl of Darlington, 600 l, per annum each, for them and their children for ever. To Mr. Livermore, his gentleman, 1000 l. and his wardrobe. To his cook and clerk of the kitchen, 100 l. per ann. each during life. To Mr. Thomas Heron, a diſtant relation, 1000 l, and 50 l. per ann. To his coachman, all his carriages and coach horſes, To Mr. Garden, his ſteward, 1000 l. and a genteel annuity for life. To Dr. Douglas, his library; the ſaid library was firſt deviſed to the doctor by the late earl of Bath, which the general purchaſed for 1000 l. and now has left to him again, agreeable to the intention of the original devifor. To George Colman, eſq; 400 l. per ann. for life. To his houſekeeper, 100 l. per ann. for life. To his two grooms, two years wages, and all his fine riding-horſes. To all his other ſervants, each, two years wages. Beſides a great number of charitable and other legacies. The name of the houſe he died in, in Piccadilly, is ordered by his will to be called for ever BATH HOUSE.

Died, in Virginia Edward Pleaſants, eſq; aged 94 years, who had married ſeven Indian wives.

Father Rabo, the jeſuit, who laſt ſummer went from Quebec to diſcover if any navigable river communicated from the weſtward of Lake Superior, in Canada, to the S. Seas.

Capt. Thomas Wilſon, aged 86, who ſerved in all the campaigns under the great duke of Marlborough.

Rev. Mr. Tho. Trigge, vicar of Horlie, near Riegate, Surry, and poſſeſſed alſo of a donative in Suffolk. He was educated in Chriſt's Hoſpital, and many years ſince preſented by the governors to the above two benefices; about ſix years ago, he preſented the hoſpital with 100 l. out of gratitude, and about two years after, with 200 l. more; upon which the general court voted him a governor; he has by his will added a third gift of 200 l. which will make up 500 l. in return for his education and the preferment he received from that royal hoſpital.

At Ghent, the famous Jenny Cameron.

At Paris, Anne Louiſa Allard, aged 117 years.

John Key aged 85, in Pennſylvania. Wm. Penn, the firſt proprietor, gave him a lot of ground in compliment, being the firſt child born in Philadelphia.

Geo. Wilford, aged 100, wanting four days, at Penny-bridge in Lancaſhire. About 3 years ago died James Roberts, aged 113, near the ſame place; where is now living William Rogers, aged 105, in perfect health.

Elizabeth Harwood, at Whitechurch in Shropſhire, aged 102 years. Her huſband, a ſhepherd,

is

is ſtill living there, aged ninety-eight years.

At his houſe in Thackham's court, Chandois-ſtreet, in the 100 year of his age, Mr. Wood, who had for upwards of ſeventy years belonged to the Heralds office.

NOVEMBER.

1ſt. The Montreal arrived in the river, where the coffin in which his royal highneſs's remains were brought home, was changed for one made by the king's upholſterer, on which his highneſs's titles were elegantly inſcribed.

2d. This day, about noon, the queen was happily delivered of a prince. Her royal highneſs the princeſs dowager of Wales, his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury, ſeveral lords of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy-council, and the ladies of her majeſty's bedchamber, were preſent.

3d. The remains of his late royal highneſs the duke of York were depoſited in the royal vault in king Henry VIIth's chapel. For an account of the proceſſion, ſee the Appendix to the Chronicle.

An order was iſſued by the lord mayor for apprehending all vagrants found within the liberties of the city, and paſſing them to their reſpective pariſhes.

Some labourers, in ſinking a well at Benacre in Suffolk, found an earthen jar, containing near 400 pieces of ſilver coin, the chief part of K. Edward I. and II. and ſtruck at London, York, and Dublin. The workmen honeſtly carried them to Sir Thomas Gooch, lord of the manor, who rewarded them handſomely for their trouble.

4th. A ſeſſion of high court of admiralty was held at the Old Bailey, for trial of offences committed on the high ſeas, but no material offences came before the court. A commander, charged with wilfully caſting away his ſhip, with intent to defraud the inſurers, was diſcharged of that offence, no indictment having been preferred againſt him. Another commander of a veſſel, charged with cruelty to his apprentice, was likewiſe diſcharged.

The following extraordinary atteſtation of the coroner of Bergen county in New-England, was communicated by a gentleman of ſuch credit, as leaves not the leaſt doubt of its being genuine. "On the 22d day of September, in the year of our Lord 1767, I Johannes Demareſt, coroner of the county of Bergen and province of New-Jerſey, was preſent at a view of the body of one Nicholas Tuers, then lying dead, together with the jury, which I ſummoned to enquire of the death of the ſaid Nicholas Tuers. At that time a negro man, named Harry, belonging to Hendrick Chriſtians Zabriſke, was ſuſpected of having murdered the ſaid Tuers, but there was no proof of it, and the negro denied it. I aſked if he was not afraid to touch Tuers. He ſaid No, he had not hurt him, and immediately came up to the corpſe lying in the coffin; and then Staats Storm, one of the jurors, ſaid, 'I am not afraid of him, and ſtroked the dead man's face with his hand, which made no alteration in the dead perſon, and (as I did not put any faith in any of thoſe trials) my back was turned

ed towards the dead body, when the jury ordered the negro to touch the dead man's face with his hand, and then I heard a cry in the room of the people, saying, 'He is the man,' and I was desired to come to the dead body; and was told that the said Negro Harry had put his hand on Tuers's face, and that the blood immediately ran out of the nose of the dead man Tuers. I saw the blood on his face, and ordered the negro to rub his hand again on Tuers's face; he did so, and immediately the blood again ran out of the said Tuers's nose at both nostrils, near a common table spoonful at each nostril, as well as I could judge. Whereupon the people all charged him with being the murderer, but he denied it for a few minutes, and then confessed that he had murdered the said Nicholas Tuers, by first striking him on the head with an axe, and then driving a wooden pin in his ear; though afterwards he said he struck a second time with his axe, and then held him fast till he had done struggling; when that was done, he awaked some of the family, and said Tuers was dying he believed.

JOHANNES DEMAREST, Cor."

Nine young apprentices, the oldest not 18, having some time since formed themselves into a gang in order to go on the highway, having committed robberies, it is said, to the amount of 500l. five of them were this day taken, and diligent search is making after the rest. Their principal rendezvous was at a little public-house near Shepherd's Bush, where they used to put up their horses, change their cloaths, and transact all their business. The ringleader of those hopeful youths some time ago, having discovered a sum of money, to the amount of near 200l. which his mother had saved unknown to his father, took the whole, and immediately laid it out in cloaths, pistols, &c. for the rest of his companions.

At a court of common council held at Guildhall, a motion was made that the thanks of this court be given to the hon. Thomas Harley, Lord Mayor elect, Sir Robert Ladbroke, knt. Sir Richard Glynn, knt. and bart. and William Beckford, esq; this city's representatives in parliament, for the constant and diligent application and attention which they have shewn, on all occasions (during the course of this parliament) to the welfare and interest of this great metropolis in general; and particularly to the several matters which have from time to time been recommended by this court to their care and consideration: Which was resolved, and fair copies ordered to be signed by the town-clerk, and one delivered to each of the said representatives.

The corpse of the late general Pulteney, after lying in state, was carried from the Jerusalem chamber in grand procession, and interred in Islip's chapel in Westminster-Abbey.

This day the noted Higgins was executed at Carmarthen, from whence we have received the following particulars. 7th.

"On the 23d of October, the Sheriff of Carmarthen received the warrant for the execution of Edward Higgins on the 7th instant, which was read to him, and which affected him greatly for a few minutes, but his spirits reviving, he

ſaid, "I'll get a reprieve before then;" ſo on the 26th of October he wrote to ſome of his friends for one, which accordingly came down on the 3d inſtant, of which the following is a copy.

Whitehall, Oct. 29, 1767.

'Sir, notwithſtanding his majeſty's royal mandate for that purpoſe, you are hereby required to poſtpone the execution of Edward Higgins, convicted at your laſt aſſize for burglary, till further orders. Yours, &c.

SHELBURNE.'

To the High Sheriff of the
county of Carmarthen or
his Deputy, the Goaler,
or his Deputy.

"On the arrival of this ſham reſpite, Higgins's wife and ſiſter, in order to countenance the cheat, dreſſed themſelves that evening in white, but the under-ſheriff ſuſpecting the reality of this reſpite, made every enquiry about it, and finding it a forged one, went to the priſoner the evening preceding his execution, adviſing him to prepare himſelf for eternity, for that he would be executed the following day: to which Higgins ſaid, "you are a ſcoundrel for ſuſpecting ſo evident a truth; move me from this place to-morrow if you dare," curſing and ſwearing moſt ſhockingly all the time. The clergymen of the town, and eſpecially the Rev. Mr. Rogers, the rector, and his curate, were very aſſiduous in adminiſtering good advice to him, which he regarded not, ſtill inſiſting upon a reſpite, and offering to bet 1000 l. on the reality of it, and ſaying, you threaten me with the gallows, thinking I will confeſs many things; I muſt be a d—d fool if I do.

"Yeſterday, the 7th inſtant, about eleven o'clock in the morning, he was fetched out of gaol, and taken to Petfarn, the place of execution; but was very deſirous of being hanged within the walls of the caſtle, which was denied him. On the road to the gallows he walked ſo faſt, that the ſpectators could hardly keep up with him, ſtill curſing and ſwearing that the reſpite was real, and calling the under-ſheriff a ſcoundrel for taking away his life with the reprieve in his pocket; he further ſaid, that the lord chief juſtice will take the matter in hand, and many will ſuffer by it; and it is reported, that he deſired his wife to inſert his trial, execution, &c. in the London papers; and at the gallows delivered her two letters, but the contents are not known. He made no confeſſion at all, but declared he never wronged any perſon of a ſhilling in his life, and in a manner denied the crime for which he ſuffered. He mounted the ladder boldly, and addreſſed the ſpectators thus: "Gentlemen, now is the time, do as you pleaſe, you have my reprieve in your cuſtody." He prayed for about five minutes, and then ſaid, "I am ready," and was turned off before one o'clock."

This day at noon the prince and princeſs of Orange made their public entry into the Hague. The proceſſion was very magnificent, and in great order, notwithſtanding the prodigious concourſe of people, which had crowded from all parts of this country to ſee it. The magiſtrates of the Hague received and complimented their highneſſes under a triumphal arch, erected at the ſide they came 2th.

into

into town by. The burghers were under arms, as was likewiſe the garriſon; and the prince of Weilburgh and prince Lewis of Brunſwick marched in the train at the head of their reſpective ſquadrons of guards. The artillery was fired at the ſame time from the ramparts; the bells rang; and the ſtadtholder, with his royal bride, were conducted to their apartments amidſt the acclamations of the people. The whole town was magnificently illuminated at night. This evening their highneſſes make their appearance at the French theatre; and on Thurſday next, the prince of Orange will give a ball and ſupper at the old court, with which the public feſtival will conclude.

A breakfaſt was given to the friends of the marquis of Kildare, at the Rotunda in the New Gardens, in Dublin, of which the following is the bill of fare:

100 rounds of beef: 100 neats tongues: 1000 ſheeps ditto: 100 baked pies: 100 ſirloins of beef: 100 geeſe roaſted; 100 turkies ditto: 100 ducks ditto: 100 pullets ditto: 100 wild fowl: 1000 French loaves: 2000 large prints of butter: 100 weight of Glouceſter cheeſe: tea, coffee, and chocolate, in abundance: 2000 ſaffron cakes: 4000 plain ditto: 50 hams: 2500 bottles of wine: and a moſt ſplendid and large pyramid of ſweetmeats in the middle of the deſert in the center of the room; likewiſe a great number of ſtands of jelly, and a curious fountain playing, handſomely ornamented with ivy, &c.

10th. This day the right hon. the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common-council aſſembled, waited on his majeſty; and being introduced to his majeſty by the right hon. the earl of Hertford, lord chamberlain of his majeſty's houſhold, James Eyre, eſq; the recorder, made their compliments in the following addreſs.

To the king's moſt excellent majeſty.

May it pleaſe your majeſty,

'We your majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common-council aſſembled, happy in every occaſion of approaching your royal preſence with our moſt dutiful congratulations, beg leave to expreſs our unfeigned joy on the ſafe delivery of that moſt excellent princeſs the queen, and the further increaſe of your royal family by the birth of another princeſs.

'We cannot but feel ourſelves deeply intereſted in every event which affects the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover, under whoſe mild government the Britiſh ſubjects have, for more than half a century, been bleſſed with a full enjoyment of their civil and religious rights, and a ſeries of happineſs unknown to the ſame extent in any former period.

'Permit us therefore, royal Sir, at the ſame time, humbly to offer our ſincere condolence on the much-lamented death of your majeſty's royal brother the duke of York, whoſe many eminent and princely virtues have moſt juſtly endeared his memory to all your majeſty's loyal ſubjects, and made the private loſs of the royal family, a public misfortune.

'May the divine providence long preſerve your majeſty; and may

there never be wanting one of your Majeſty's royal deſcendants to be the guardian of our moſt happy conſtitution!

Signed by order of court,

JAMES HODGES.

To which addreſs his majeſty was pleaſed to return this moſt gracious anſwer:

'I thank you for this loyal addreſs, and for the ſatisfaction you expreſs in the increaſe of my family: Thoſe expreſſions of your zealous attachment cannot but be agreeable to me; The religion and liberties of my people always have been, and ever ſhall be, the conſtant objects of my care and attention; and I ſhall eſteem it one of my firſt duties to inſtil the ſame principles into thoſe who may ſucceed me.

'I regard your condolence on the melancholy event of the Duke of York's death, as an additional proof of your attachment to me and my family; and I take this firſt opportunity of expreſſing my thanks for it.'

They were all received very graciouſly, and had the honour to kiſs his majeſty's hand.

14th. This morning early a terrible fire broke out at the houſe of Mr. Bailey, turner and chandler, near Gray's-Inn-Lane, Holborn, which entirely conſumed the ſame, together with another houſe, a pawn-broker's, adjoining, and damaged one more. The flames were ſo rapid, that Mr. Bailey and his family had hardly time to make their eſcape, undreſſed. His ſtock in trade, furniture, wearing apparel, &c. were deſtroyed; a young man, a lodger, was obliged to throw himſelf out of a two-pair of ſtairs window, by which he broke his arm and thigh, and now lies without hopes of recovery. This accident is ſaid to have been occaſioned by a lamp being left burning for a lodger, which unhappily ſet fire to ſome ſhavings in the room.

A number of colliers from near Stourbridge, in Worceſterſhire, aſſembled in a riotous manner at Kidderminſter-market, and being joined by other perſons, to the number of near 2000, forced the farmers to ſell their wheat at 5s. a buſhel, which before was ſold at 7s. and at the ſame time obliged them to ſell their butter at 6d. a pound, which before was ſold for 8d. They paid for what they had, and then went home quietly.

16th. At Mr. Dudley's, ironmonger and grocer, in Stourbridge, by ſome means a ſpark of fire flew into a barrel of gunpowder, which was in a back warehouſe, while Mr. Dudley was there, and blew up the whole building, and buried him in the ruins, from whence he was dug out a moſt miſerable ſpectacle; yet there are hopes of his recovery; adjoining to the building was a lockſmith's ſhop, in which ſeveral men were at work, who were by the concuſſion, which forced out the windows of the ſhop, thrown confuſedly againſt each other. One man received a mortal wound in his belly from an inſtrument one of his ſhopmates was at work with, and died ſoon after. The violence of the ſhock broke the windows of ſeveral adjacent houſes.

A gentlewoman in Holbourn, whoſe huſband had preſented her with a ticket, put up prayers in the church the day before drawing, in the

the following manner. "The prayers of this congregation are desired for the success of a person engaged in a new undertaking."

Mr. Hughes, a stock-broker, had his pocket picked in Jonathan's coffee-house of 50 lottery-tickets, the value of which (at the price then sold) is 800l. The same evening three other brokers had their pockets picked of their purses, one containing 62 guineas, another seven, and the third five. One of the pickpockets has been since apprehended, on whom 35 of the tickets were recovered; the other 15 he said were carried to Holland by his accomplices.

A coloured print of the French king, engraved on copper, was worked off, in his majesty's presence, by M. Gautier, assisted by one of his sons. The work was compleated in six minutes, and the picture came out finished with all its colours.

A court of Aldermen was held at Guildhall, when 100l. was ordered to be paid to the widow of the late worthy alderman Cockayne, as a testimony of the sense they entertained of his ever being ready and willing to serve his fellow-citizens.

A motion was made in the court of common pleas for a new trial to set aside the verdict given against the surgeons in the borough, for 500l. damages, for breaking a person's leg, by new setting it; but upon hearing the merits of the cause argued, the court over-ruled the motion, and confirmed the verdict.

19th. This morning No. 3379, was drawn a prize of twenty thousand pounds. It is the property of Mr. Alder, a cooper and publican, at Abington, in Berks. The broker who went from town to carry him the news, he complimented with 100l. All the bells in the town were set a ringing; he called in his neighbours, promised to assist this with a capital sum, that with another, gave away plenty of liquor, and vowed to lend a poor cobler (his old penny customer) money to buy leather to stock his stall so full, that he should not be able to get into it to work; and lastly, he promised to buy a new coach for the coachman who brought him down the ticket, and to give a set of as good horses as could be bought for money.

On Wednesday in the afternoon, the body of a gentleman was found drowned just off Billingsgate, supposed to have missed his way in the fog; he had in his pockets a watch, two guineas, a five and threepence, some silver, and a dollar, and silver buckles in his shoes.

On Wednesday evening, as Mr. Cox, needlemaker in Black-friars, was going over to Bridewell, he by the thickness of the fog, missed his way, and fell into the ditch close to black-friars wharf. and was found suffocated in the mud.

24th. This day his majesty, attended by the duke of Ancaster, and the earl of Huntingdon, went in his state-coach to the house of peers, and opened the present meeting of parliament with a most gracious speech from the throne.

A court of common-council was held at Guildhall, when a petition to the hon. house of commons, relating to the present high price of provisions, was read and agreed

to, and the ſheriffs were ordered to preſent the ſame forthwith.

They write from Vienna, that letters from Tyrol bring a detail of the moſt melancholy events. After a very copious rain, which laſted from the 16th to the 19th, in the ſouthern part of that country, the rivers and brooks overflowed on all ſides. The waters which ran from the mountains dragged down along with them ſtones of an enormous ſize, and overturned bridges, houſes, and churches. In ſome places the very rocks, detached from the mountains, made terrible havock. The Adige, iſſuing from its bed, produced ſo great an inundation, that the plain between the two mountains reſembled a lake. The miſery of the country is general, and the inhabitants not being able to remedy the misfortune, had no other courſe to take but to eſcape to the high grounds, from whence they beheld with grief the dreadful ſpectacle of the deſtruction of their houſes and fields.

The town of Neumark, founded ſome ages ago, at the place where the town of Enna, by the Romans called Endidæ, ſtood, and which was deſtroyed by an inundation, has had pretty nearly the ſame fate. Thirty-ſeven inhabitants, who had retired into the little church of St. Antonio, periſhed, the rivulet of Vilbach having thrown it down. The little river known by the name of Lavis, broke a large dike of ſtones, and penetrated into the country of Trente, where it has done prodigious damage. The Ferſina, another ſmall ſtream, having broke its banks, has likewiſe committed great ravages.

Joſeph Harvey and Richard Bittere, for burglary; 25th. John Braſs, for robbing Mrs. Hubbard, of a ſum of money; and William Edwards, for ſtealing 80l. in the dwelling-houſe of Daniel Lucas, the Fox and Crown at Highgate, were executed at Tyburn, purſuant to their ſentence. Edwards ſeemed to be above thirty years old; but the three others greatly excited the compaſſion of the ſpectators, the eldeſt being about eighteen, and the two others younger.—Edwards was by trade a painter, and lived ſeveral years in good repute in Litchfield-ſtreet, near Newport-market; he was waited on by a gentleman, at the deſire of Mrs. Bartholomew of the White-conduit-houſe, relative to a family gold watch, when he trembled very much, and owned the taking 49l. but denied his knowing any thing of the watch.

A priſoner in the Baſtile hanged himſelf a few days ago; but the gaoler coming into his room ſoon after, and perceiving that he was not dead, cut the cord by which he hung, and made uſe of every means to recover him; but the priſoner no ſooner came to himſelf, than he ſeized the knife with which the gaoler had cut him down, ſtabbed him with it, and afterwards ſtabbed himſelf. The gaoler ſurvived him only a few hours.

The queen of Denmark, in commemoration of her marriage, has ordered the ſum of 30 rixdollars to be given to each of 25 young women, in the diſtrict of Soroe, as a portion at their wedding, beſides ten rixdollars at the birth of every firſt child. The weddings are to be on the 29th of

next

next January, which is the king's birth-day.

Ephraim Philpot of North Kelly, near Taunton in Somerſetſhire, having ſome difference with his father, went into the field where he was, and ſhot him dead. He has ſince been apprehended, and committed to priſon.

26th. The caſe of Mr. Gibſon, on a ſpecial verdict, was argued by council, before the right hon. lord Mansfield, and nine more of the judges, in the Exchequer-chamber, Weſtminſter-hall, for upwards of three hours; their lordſhips are to give their opinion on the caſe next term.

Extract of a letter from Charles-Town, South-Carolina, Oct. 2.

"Wedneſday laſt, Michael Muckenfuſs diſpatched by the poſtmaſter-general with the mail for St. Auguſtine, returned here, and gives the following account, to which he has made oath: September 20th, three days after leaving Savannah, he reached the Store on Santilly-river, kept by James Lemmon, who told him, that the day before, while George Mills, Benjamin Baker, Jeremiah Wylly, and one Cummins, were driving ſome cattle acroſs a run of water near the ſaid Wylly's houſe, the three laſt mentioned were fired upon and killed upon the ſpot; Mills made his eſcape, and rode towards Wylly's, where he ſaw five Indians killing two women, three children, and old Mr. Mills, his own father, on which he rode off; he knew the Indians to be Creeks, belonging to the village of Allatchway, who, to the number of 15, had been for ſome time hunting in that neighbourhood. The houſe where the murder was committed is in Eaſt-Florida, on St. Mary's river, fifteen miles above the Ferry, which he reached on the 22d; but finding no boat, and no anſwer from the Ferry-houſe on the other ſide, he ſuppoſed the people were fled, and not being able to croſs the river, he was obliged to return."

Letter from the Eaſt-Indies.

"On the 10th of September, 1766, came to our garden near Tranquebar, a Mooriſh or Mahometan prieſt, a dwarf, aged 45 years: his ſize was ſcarce that of an ordinary child of four years old. What was remarkable in this caſe was, that he was not at all miſhapen, but all his limbs ſeemed as well proportioned from head to foot as thoſe of any other perſon. He ſung in the Perſian, but underſtood very little of the Malabar language. The former governor of Madraſs had his image caſt in braſs, ſince the dwarf himſelf could not be perſuaded to go to Europe. He walked a little in our plantation to look about him; but as walking was troubleſome to him on account of a diſorder in his breaſt, one of our people carried him on his arms like a child, which he liked very well."

This autumn has been fatal to the horſes in America, as well as England and Holland. The diſtemper there has been attended with fatal effects; in the province of New Jerſey, it has carried off almoſt all their young horſes and colts; and in New-England the havock it has made is very ruinous.

28th. The tide ebbed and flowed about five in the morning, twice in an hour and a half, at

at London-bridge and Greenwich.

30th. The young prince, fourth ſon of their majeſties, was baptized by the biſhop of London, (the archbiſhop of Canterbury being indiſpoſed) by the name of Edward. Their ſerene highneſſes the hereditary prince and princeſs of Brunſwick, the reigning prince of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, and her royal highneſs the princeſs of Heſſe were ſponſors by proxy.

A body of weavers, armed with ruſty ſwords, piſtols, and other offenſive weapons aſſembled at a houſe on Saffron-hill, with an intent to deſtroy the work in the looms of an eminent weaver near that place, but were happily diſperſed without much miſchief. Some of them were apprehended, and being examined before the juſtices at Hicks's-hall, it appeared that two claſſes of weavers were mutually combined to diſtreſs each other, namely the engine and narrow weavers. The engine weavers were ſuppoſed to be ruinous to the narrow weavers, becauſe, by means of their engines, one of them could do as much in one day as ſix of the other, and the ſame kind of work equally good; for which reaſon the narrow weavers were determined to deſtroy them: The men who were taken up were engine weavers, and they urged in their favour, that they only aſſembled in order to defend themſelves from a party of the others who were expected to riſe. As they had done no miſchief, they were all diſmiſſed with a ſevere reprimand for not having applied to the civil magiſtrate for protection.

About twelve the ſame night the maſter of the Peacock in Gray's-in-lane, diſcovered a man in his ſhirt that had jumped out of a two pair of ſtairs window in his ſleep. By pitching on the pent-houſe it had broke his fall, and the man had received no hurt. He appeared ſtupid at firſt, and would believe nothing of the matter; but recovering himſelf, and finding himſelf naked in the ſtreet, he was greatly affected at his deliverance.

Some particulars relative to the loſs of the brig Dolphin, capt. John Malbone, belonging to Newport, Rhode iſland, which was ſet on fire off that place in July laſt.

"When the Dolphin had arrived off Point Judith from Jamaica, and was within five miles from the land, at half after ten o'clock at night, a negro boy went down between the decks, amongſt the rum, where there ſtood ſeveral puncheons of water, and (as he ſays) with an intention to draw ſome water, but miſtook, and broached a caſk of rum; at the ſame time the door of the lantern, in which he carried the candle, being open, and the candle falling into the rum, ſet it on fire: This ſo affrighted the boy, that he neglected to ſtop the running of the rum, and in leſs than half a minute the head of the caſk flew out, and the flames were immediately communicated to fifteen caſks more all between decks, ſo that all poſſible means uſed to extinguiſh it proved entirely ineffectual; the veſſel was all in flames in a very few minutes, and conſequently reduced 26 perſons, being

ing the number of people including paſſengers, on board, to a diſtreſs and horror that muſt be left to the reader's imagination; among many of them ſubſiſted the tender and endearing connections of huſband and wife, parent and child, brother and ſiſter, &c. between whom the mercileſs flames were now effecting a cruel and inevitable ſeparation; and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that a ſoul on board ſaved his life. There were 11 paſſengers, viz. Mr. John Henry, Mr. Nathaniel Green, and another gentleman; Mrs. Henry, Mrs. Storer, Miſs Ann Storer, Miſs Frances Storer, Miſs Maria Storer, Miſs Sarah Storer, and Mr. Henry's two children, one 16, and the other 4 months old, five of whom periſhed in the following manner, viz. Mrs. Storer, Miſs Sarah Storer, and Mr. Henry's two children, being in the cabbin, were ſuffocated with the ſmoke before the two ſmall boats could be got out, they being thrown over with the utmoſt difficulty, not having any thing ready to hoiſt them: Mrs. Henry was upon deck, with her ſiſters, and might have been ſaved with them, but, overcome with maternal love and affection, on hearing her mother cry out, The children! oh, the children! ſhe ran and threw herſelf headlong down the companion into the flames, and was there inſtantly conſumed. The remainder of the people, to the number of twenty-one, got aſhore, with difficulty, in the two ſmall boats. The veſſel burnt till eight o'clock the next day, when ſhe ſunk.

"The above brig belonged to Meſſ. Evan and Francis Malbone, of Newport, Rhode Iſland, was upwards of 200 tons burthen, was returning from her firſt voyage, with a rich and valuable cargo, and had got within three or four hours ſail of that harbour when the above misfortune happened. The veſſel and cargo were valued at 40001. ſterling, and the effects of the paſſengers at 20001. ſterling."

Some months ago three large tribes in the environs of Cattaro, a ſtrong place in Venetian Dalmatia, fell upon Budoa, a trading and opulent town. We now learn, that they have at their head a chief, who calls himſelf Peter-Stephen Czar III. to which he adds, the title of (Servus Servorum) the ſervant of ſervants. He reſides at Maim, in a monaſtery of Collogeri, or Greek Schiſmatic monks, where he receives proſelytes and tributes. He has about his perſon four thouſand armed peaſants; and, under the pretence of protecting religion, has already ſubjected a conſiderable number of the inhabitants of Turkiſh Albania, ſome villages belonging to the republic of Venice, and all thoſe of Montenero, a fierce people, and great enemies of the Mahometans. The republic is taking meaſures for the preſervation of its territories, and ſtopping the progreſs of this rude people.

An extraordinary accident has lately happened at Pontoiſe, which has thrown the inhabitants into great conſternation. That town is ſo ſituated, that a rock hangs over part of it, and upon the brow of the rock are gardens, houſes, and even two churches. On the 25th inſtant, about three o'clock in the morning, part of the prominent rock

rock (50 feet in length, 30 in height, and 18 to 20 feet in width) fell down, and cruſhed three houſes, the inhabitants of which had juſt time to ſave themſelves by means of the alarm, which they received by ſome cracks which preceded the fatal accident; one man only was dug out of the ruins, ſlightly hurt, having been preſerved by a cavity occaſioned by ſome large pieces of the rock. The inhabitants are under great conſternation, on account of ſome more of the rock being in danger of falling. A ſkilful engineer is ſent to take proper meaſures to guard againſt the miſchief which may reſult from any accident of the like kind for the future.

The expulſion of the Jeſuits from the kingdom of Naples which was long expected, is at length put in execution. On the 20th of this month, at the ſetting in of the evening, the garriſon of that capital was under arms, and the ſix houſes of Jeſuits were inveſted by the civil officers, and a party of grenadiers. Six of the principal magiſtrates alſo went to each of the houſes, and fixed a ſeal on all the rooms. About midnight ten companies of grenadiers, and two hundred horſe, poſted themſelves in different parts of the city, where they preſſed a number of carriages and ſent the Jeſuits in them, guarded by a party of horſe, to Pozzuoli, where veſſels were waiting to tranſport them out of the kingdom. Every Jeſuit was allowed to take his portmanteau, which was not examined. A party of ſoldiers is left in each of the houſes, till further orders are received from the king. The ſhips have not yet ſailed from Pozzuoli, being detained by contrary winds; two armed galleys in this port have orders to join them, but the port they are bound to is not known.

The ſucceſs which the affair of the Diſſidents has met with, is owing principally to the private conferences which were held at the houſes of prince de Repnin, the prince Primate, and the marſhals of the confederacy. It was there agreed that the king and queen of Poland ſhall be of the Roman Catholic religion; but that, nevertheleſs, the Diſſidents, Greeks, and Proteſtants, ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges as the Catholics throughout Poland. All the proceedings of the Diſſidents ſhall henceforth be judged before a ſuperior tribunal, entitled, *Judicium Mixtum*, the members of which are to be of different religions, and the preſident to be alternately a Catholic, Greek, or Diſſident.

The biſhop of Cracow, and the other nobles whom the Ruſſian troops carried off, are ſtill at Wilna, and it becomes every day more apparent, that they will not recover their liberty, till the grand commiſſion and the diet ſhall have terminated their ſittings.

Died, at Hexham, David Chambers, weaver, aged 100. He was in the army upwards of 30 years; and he was under the duke of Marlborough in his campaigns. His behaviour during that period was ſuch as gained him the eſteem of his ſuperiors, and juſtly intitled him to an offer of that aſylum which numbers are glad to enjoy by petition. In the laſt war, notwithſtanding he was upwards of 90 years of age, he again joined the army, and had the honour to fight

ſight under prince Ferdinand on the plains of Minden: from whence he returned again to Hexham, mounted the loom, and continued working thereat till within a very little time of his death.

Mr. Penniſton Brooks, at Honduras, upwards of 40 years a conſiderable logwood cutter there.

Mary Griffiths, in a cellar, in the Borough of Southwark, forty years a cryer of old rags, by which ſhe acquired houſes in Whitechapel, to the yearly rent of 73 l.

—— Ritchie, Eſq; aged near 90, who had been purveyor to K. George I. and II.

DECEMBER.

1ſt. The 10,000l. prize drawn this day, is the property of Mr. Cappadocia, an eminent Jew merchant, who formerly had a prize of the like value for himſelf, and purchaſed a third for a correſpondent abroad.

The Dutch Eaſt-India company have loſt the laſt homeward bound ſhip that was expected from Batavia this year. She was wrecked in a ſtorm within three leagues of the Texel, and all on board, except 5 or 6 ſailors, periſhed. It is ſaid 500,000l. private property, has been loſt on board that ſhip.

2d. Hamed Agen, ambaſſador from Tripoly, had his audience of leave of his majeſty. He was honoured with extraordinary marks of royal favour, and, ſince his departure, has been received at Portſmouth by a ſalute of all the guns on the ramparts.

The following remarkable affair is ſaid to have happened near Frome in Somerſetſhire: A farmer having high words with his wife, and being employed at the ſame time in ſomewhat wherein he had occaſion for the uſe of a bill-hook, which he had in his hand, on ſome provocation he gave her a cut on the top of the head with it, on which ſhe ran from him, and he after her, in order (as ſuppoſed) to repeat the blow, when there being a very deep well in the yard, with its mouth unſtopped, the woman leaped over it, but the poor man ſtumbled, fell headlong into it, and was drowned.

3d. At a court of Chriſt's hoſpital, the preſident declared that a benefaction of 100l. had been received from John Spicker, Eſq; 50l. from John Drinkwater, Eſq; 100l. from Lord Monſon; 50l. from the Hon. George Venables Vernon; 200 guineas from Joſeph Martin, Eſq; and the like ſum from John Durand, Eſq; the preſent high ſheriff for Surry.

The court of Common Pleas, on Saturday, delivered their opinions in the great inſurance cauſe, wherein John Drinkwater, Eſq; was plaintiff, and the Royal Exchange aſſurance-office, defendants, on a caſe reſerved, whether a loſs by fire at Norwich, in the riots there, was within the exceptions of the company's policy? When the court gave judgment for the plaintiff.

From the Votes of the Houſe of Commons of Ireland.

Jovis, 19 die Novembris, 1767.

Reſolved, That it appears to this committee, that the penſions placed upon this eſtabliſhment (excluſive of the French and military penſions) for 2 years, from the 25th of

of March 1765, to the 25th of March 1767, exceed the whole charges of the reſt of the civil liſt 60,688 l. 7 s. 6¼ d.

Reſolved, That it appears by the public accounts, that the charge of the civil eſtabliſhment, for two years preceding Lady-day 1751, amounted to 146,134 l. 8 s. 4d ¼ d. and that the charge of the civil eſtabliſhment, for the two years preceding Lady-day 1767, amounted to 257,988 l. 6 s. 10¾ d. and that the difference is an exceeding of 111,853 l. 18 s. 6 d. in the two laſt years.

7th. His majeſty came to the houſe of peers, and gave the royal aſſent to

An act to prohibit the exportation of corn, grain, meal, malt, flour, bread, biſcuit, and ſtarch, and alſo the extraction of low wines and ſpirits from wheat and wheat-flour.

An act for allowing the importation of wheat, wheat-flour, barley, barley-meal, pulſe, oats, oat-meal, rye, and rye-meal, duty free; and to allow the importation of wheat and wheat-flour from Africa, for a limited time, free of duty.

The corporation of Briſtol, and the ſociety of merchants of that city, ſent commiſſions to Dantzick for ſeveral thouſand quarters of wheat to be imported there, which thoſe bodies intend to ſell to the poor at a low price.

A butcher in liquor went to a public-houſe in Briſtol, and having a pint of beer, was deſired by the landlady to go home; on which he began curſing and abuſing her, and after ſeveral words he drew out his knife, and ſaid that he would as ſoon run it into her as he would ſtick a pig; and making ſome advances towards her, the huſband was ſo ſtruck with the fright, that he dropped down on the ſpot, and expired inſtantly.

A fellow was committed to Warwick gaol for defrauding Mr. Joſ. Kendrick of Birmingham, in July laſt, of 221 l. 1 s. with which he immediately went off to France; and on his return from thence laſt week was apprehended at Holmes Chapel, in his way to Warrington in Lancaſhire, where he had hired himſelf to work in one of the glaſs-houſes there, in order to obtain the art of making glaſs, and then was to return to France. He was ſervant to Mr. Kendrick, and was ſent with bills to the above amount to the bank in Birmingham for caſh, which having obtained, he made off.

Yeſterday morning, about four o'clock, an untenanted houſe under repair, adjoining to the Roſe tavern and alehouſe in Curſitor-ſtreet, fell down, and carried with it part of the alehouſe, in which were ſeveral lodgers, five of whom were killed, viz. a man, a woman with child, and three children. Several others were much bruiſed, and carried to St. Bartholomew's hoſpital, among whom was a poor woman dug out of the ruins, who had a young child at the breaſt, now miſſing.

Extract of a letter from Boſton, New-England, September 27.

Mr. James Barclay, of Warwick townſhip, in Bucks county, has ſent to a gentleman in this city the following affecting narrative of the ſudden deaths of Mr. Robert Stewart, of that townſhip, and his

three ſons, Joſeph, John, and Benjamin, which happened after the following manner, viz. Mr. R. Stewart having a well near his houſe, about 30 feet deep, that in ſummer was uſually dry, he employed a well-digger, on the 22d ult. to ſink it deeper, who, after working in it ſome time, told his employer it was ſo damp and unwholeſome, that he could not continue to work. Upon this objection a fire was kindled at the bottom, in order to prepare it for another trial on Monday. Whether this fire continued burning, appears uncertain: but on Monday morning, about ſun-riſe, Mr. Stewart, accompanied by ſeveral of his children, ſons and daughters, went to the well, when Joſeph, a young lad, was ſent down (by a ladder) to ſee if the fire was perfectly extinguiſhed. The unhappy youth had ſcarcely reached the bottom before he was ſtruck motionleſs by a noxious vapour, and as it was imagined by thoſe above, that he had fallen by a miſs-ſtep, John went immediately to his aſſiſtance, and taking his then lifeleſs body in his arms, in order to carry him up, he was himſelf ſtruck in like manner, and had not the power to ſave either his brother or himſelf. The father, thinking that Joſeph was hurt by a fall, and that John was unable to get him up, went haſtily down to them, and taking hold of the former, then claſped in the arms of the latter, he was likewiſe inſtantaneouſly affected; and, in a ſhort ſpace, they all fell dead together. Benjamin, (who, with his five ſiſters above, was beholding the diſtreſsful ſcene, and judging the true cauſe) in his anxiety of mind, reſolved to go to the relief of his father and brothers. His filial and fraternal affection was ſo great, that no treaties could ſwerve him from his purpoſe. He told his mother and ſiſters, that he would take a bottle of camphire, which was given him to make uſe of as occaſion ſhould require, and that the moment he felt any thing unuſual from the place, he would leave it. The unfortunate young man deſcended, and ſoon met with the ſame deplorable fate. The bodies were ſoon after taken up, and all poſſible means uſed to revive them, but in vain."

This melancholy affair has been the means of diſcovering the following effectual remedy.

"Draw a quantity of water out of the well, and pour it back again, repeating the ſame about an hour; the next day let down a candle into it, and, if it burns bright, any perſon may go down to the bottom of the well with ſafety; if it dees not, repeat the former operation till it does."

A cauſe came on to be tried in Doctors Commons, 11th. between an eminent tradeſman in Piccadilly, and his wife, for repeated acts of cruelty, adultery, and giving her the foul diſeaſe, and other ill uſage, when, after many learned arguments, (the innocence of the wife not being in the leaſt impeached) the judge pronounced the man to have been guilty both of the cruelty and adultery, and divorced the woman from her huſband, and condemned him in full coſts, to the ſatisfaction of the whole court.

On Thurſday laſt was tried at Guildhall, a cauſe wherein a pawnbroker of this city was ſued upon the

the ſtatute of uſury, for taking more than legal intereſt for the loan of a large ſum of money upon a parcel of jewels, &c. The plaintiff plainly proving, fifty pounds had been ſo lent by the pawnbroker, a verdict for that ſum was given for the plaintiff; and as the above ſtatute ſubjects the lender of money upon illegal intereſt to pay treble the ſum lent, the pawnbroker muſt pay the plaintiff 150 l. beſides coſts of ſuit.

On Saturday laſt the wife of Thomas Upton, coachman, near Red-lion-ſquare, who on Thurſday laſt was delivered of two ſons and a daughter, was ſafely delivered of a fourth child.

In the courſe of laſt week upwards of 20,coo quarters of oats, 7000 quarters of wheat, 4000 quarters of barley, and 2000 quarters of rye, were imported into the river from foreign parts; the greateſt quantity that has been known for ſome years in one week.

Wedneſday night, about 400 weavers, armed with cutlaſſes, hatchets, &c. aſſembled in Brick-lane, in order to deſtroy the looms of a worſted-lace-weaver there. Mr. Hurford, high conſtable of the diviſion, attended with a number of officers in order to oppoſe them; but being overpowered, he was obliged to take refuge, with his aſſiſtants, in the neighbouring houſes. A party of the guards, however, being ſent for from the Tower, the rioters were ſoon diſperſed; and upwards of 40 of them taken, and conveyed to New-Priſon, Clerkenwell, and Clerkenwell Bridewell; and yeſterday they were examined at Hicks's Hall, and after being reprehended, and admoniſhed to behave peaceably for the future, were diſcharged.

The ſeſſions ended at the Old-Bailey, when three received ſentence of death; forty-two were ſentenced to be tranſported for ſeven years, and three for fourteen years, ſix were branded in the hand, two ordered to be whipped, and thirty-three diſcharged by proclamation. 14th.

Among thoſe capitally convicted, was one Henry Domaine, for forging a promiſſory note, payable to himſelf, with intent to defraud John Reid, victualler, in Clerkenwell. He had the impudence to arreſt the man by virtue of the ſaid note.

Province of Maſſachuſett's-Bay.
Council Chamber, Oct. 15, 1767.
Preſent, his excellency the govenor in council.

His excellency having communicated to the council a letter from the right hon. the earl of Shelburne, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, incloſing an order of his majeſty in privy council, by which his majeſty has been pleaſed to diſallow and reject an act paſſed by the great and general court or aſſembly of this province, in December 1766, intituled, "An act for granting compenſation to the ſufferers, and of free and general pardon, indemnity, and oblivion, to the offenders in the late times;"

Adviſed and ordered, That notice be given in the Maſſachuſett's gazette, that the ſaid act is diſallowed and rejected, that every perſon concerned therein may govern themſelves accordingly.

By order of his excellency the go-

governor, with the advice of his majeſty's counſeil.

John Cotton. Dep. Sec.

15th. By order of the houſe of commons, the ſpeaker gave notice, that one third part of the capital ſtock of 4 per cent. annuities for 1763, ſhall be reduced and paid off on the 5th day of July next.

An order of council was at the ſame time iſſued, for putting the laws in force againſt artificers leaving their country, and exerciſing their reſpective callings in foreign countries; for which purpoſes thoſe laws are recited in the London gazette.

The ſociety of arts came to a reſolution to give the gold medal of the ſociety to Charles Dingley, Eſq; for his public ſpirit, in erecting at a very conſiderable expence a ſaw-mill at Limehouſe.

A moſt ſhocking murder was committed at Portſmouth on a marine, by a ſoldier who came to his quarters and decoyed him out. The next morning the man was found with his head beat almoſt to pieces, the ſcalp almoſt torn off, ſtabbed in ſeveral parts of the face and eyes, ſuppoſed with a bayonet. He came home in the Montreal man of war, and had juſt received the money due to him. The murderer has ſince been apprehended, and committed to Wincheſter gaol.

Came on in the court of King's bench, Guildhall, a trial between a captain of an Eaſt-Indiaman, and a ſurgeon of the ſame ſhip, for the former beating and confining the latter ſome time during the voyage; when a verdict was found for the ſurgeon, with 90 l. damages, and coſts of ſuit.

At a court of common council 200 l. a year additional ſalary was voted to the recorder of London; and 150 l. a year to the common ſerjeant.

They write from Bridgewater, that a moſt extraordinary phænomenon has lately appeared in the villages of Limpeſham, Burnham, Brent, and ſeveral other pariſhes near this place, the fields of which are over-run with an incredible number of mice, which do infinite damage; the dogs and cats have killed great numbers, but are cloyed with them: The cattle will not touch the graſs where theſe vermin are, and we expect no relief but from a ſevere froſt, which, it is hoped, will deſtroy them. A ſimilar circumſtance is not remembered by the oldeſt perſon in theſe parts,

A poor woman in Kingſwood, near Briſtol, hanged herſelf in a ſtable, and was not diſcovered till ſhe was quite dead. It ſeems the cauſe of her committing this raſh action was owing to her huſband, who is a collier, having loſt ſeveral of his horſes by the preſent epidemical diſtemper, which occaſioned his going behind-hand to the amount of four pounds to the coal-pit: She had with great difficulty that morning raiſed two guineas, in order to help to diſcharge the debt, but the creditor declared his reſolution not to take leſs than the whole, and to arreſt her huſband immediately, unleſs it was paid. Struck with the impoſſibility of raiſing the ſum wanted, and dreading the conſequence of her huſband's confinement, having three very ſmall children to ſupport, ſhe returned home, and after weeping over,

and embracing her infants, too inconsiderately gave way to her despondency.

The following fact may be worth the knowledge of the public. In pumping one of his majesty's ships in the West-Indies, the chain broke; upon which, a man was ordered down to repair it; but, on his entrance into the well, he dropped down dead, (as did six more to all appearance) and so would others, had not the commanding officer put a stop to them. An old seaman standing by, and unwilling to let his comrades suffer, without attempting something for their safety, put his hand into a bucket of tar, with which he rubbed his nostrils, upper lip, and mouth, slung himself in a rope, and went down without meeting with any annoyance from the stagnant water, and sent them all up; when one was found quite dead, and three of the others were with the greatest difficulty saved.

20th. Prayers were publicly read in all the Popish mass-houses, throughout Ireland, for his majesty king George III. queen Charlotte, the prince of Wales, and all the royal family; being the first time the royal family of England have been prayed for in this public manner by the Papists in Ireland, since the revolution.

21st. His majesty went to the house of peers, attended by the duke of Ancaster, and the earl of Orford, and gave the royal assent to,

The bill for granting an aid to his majesty by a land-tax, to be raised in Great-Britain, for the service of the year 1768.

The bill to continue the duties on malt, mum, cyder, and perry, for the service of the ensuing year.

The bill to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army, and their quarters.

The bill to indemnify persons who have omitted to qualify themselves for offices or employments within the times limited by law; and for allowing a further time for that purpose.

The bill to allow the importation of Indian corn, or maize, from the American colonies, for a limited time, free of duty.

And also to several private bills.

The house of peers adjourned to the 20th, and the house of commons to the 14th of January.

Extract of a letter from Cambridge, Dec. 18.

"On Tuesday night last a most shocking murder was committed on the body of Bridget Burling, an aged woman, who kept a little shop in St. Giles's parish in this town. She was first discovered about two o'clock on Wednesday morning, by one John Bell, who, seeing her door open, went in, and found the old woman dead on the floor, with a pair of scales and a piece of cheese lying by her. She had a large wound on the right side of her head, a little above her ear, by which the skull was beat in; three more on her forehead, a stab in her throat, which penetrated into the cavity of her lungs; and another large wound that went under her shoulder-bone. About nine o'clock on Tuesday evening one Sarah Collings, a girl about thir-

thirteen years old, was ſent by her mother to Burling's, who, ſeeing a light, called at her door ſeveral times, and was anſwered by a voice, which ſhe took to be a man's, 'Bridget is gone to bed.' The coroner's inqueſt brought in their verdict wilful murder by ſome perſon or perſons unknown."

His majeſty, in compaſſion to ſuch manufacturers and people in trade, as, by the length of court-mournings, are, in this time of general ſcarcity and dearneſs of proviſions, deprived, in a great meaſure, of the means of getting bread, hath been pleaſed to give directions for ſhortening all ſuch mournings for the future: and the lord-chamberlain's orders for court-mournings will be iſſued hereafter conformably thereto.

A chapter of the moſt noble order of the garter having been ſummoned to meet this day, his royal highneſs Henry duke of Cumberland was, by his majeſty's command, declared duly elected; and was inveſted with the enſigns of the order, with the uſual ceremony.

By a liſt of the abſentees from Ireland, lately publiſhed there, it appears, that there is paid annually,

	l.	s.
To penſioners who never reſide there,	70,275	0
Noblemen and gentlemen of great eſtates, who generally live abroad,	247,400	0
Occaſional abſentees,	134,500	0
Thoſe who have employments and never reſide,	143,000	0
Merchants and traders expences,	8,000	0
Education of youth, and at inns of court,	35,000	0
Law-ſuits, and ſeeking employments,	19,000	0
By military abſentees, and articles relating to the army, recruiting, &c.	142,205	14
Adventures to America,	40,000	0
Inſurance of ſhips,	30,000	0
By rents raiſed by abſent lords, for coals to England and Scotland, and various other articles,	200,000	0
	£. 1,069,382	14

A ſevere froſt ſet in from the E. S. E. which was followed by a deep ſnow, by which the navigation of the river Thames has been obſtructed, and the poſts retarded all over the kingdom.

At a meeting of the corporation of Windſor, it was unanimouſly agreed to preſent the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland with the freedom of that ancient borough.

A letter from Vienna ſays, Our court hath received from that of Madrid ſome diſpatches relative to the choice which the catholic king was deſired to make of one of the archdutcheſſes to be queen of Naples; this choice hath fallen on the archdutcheſs Caroline, who is a year and ſome months younger than the late archdutcheſs Joſepha was. The formality of demanding her royal highneſs in marriage for his Sicilian majeſty has juſt been made, and the portrait of that monarch hath been preſented to the princeſs. The departure of the prin-

ceſs for Italy will take place towards the ſpring, as ſoon as the public roads ſhall be paſſable.

25th. A fire broke out next a cabinet-maker's in Houndſditch, which conſumed that houſe, a large ſtock of timber, new furniture, &c. and alſo two other dwelling-houſes adjoining, with many outhouſes, workſhops, and warehouſes. Among the goods conſumed was 1000l. worth of furniture, juſt finiſhed for Mr. David Barclay, and intended to have been carried home in a few days. It is remarkable that a fire broke out the ſame day at the ſaid Mr. Barclay's ſtables at Hackney, and deſtroyed two fine hunters, with three or four other horſes.

30th. His majeſty having been graciouſly pleaſed to ſignify his intention of filling up the vacant ſtall of the principal companion of the moſt hon. military order of the Bath, in the room of his late royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland:

This day ſeveral of the officers of the order attended at St. James's.

The ſovereign wearing the ribbon, with the ſymbol of the order pendant to it, Henry Hill, Eſq; gentleman uſher, bearing the ſcarlet rod, and habited in the mantle of the order, and Samuel Horſey, Eſq; Bath King of Arms, in his mantle, bearing on a cuſhion the ribbon, with the badge of the order, preceded his royal highneſs prince Frederick, ſupported by the earls of Cholmondley and Breadalbane, the two ſenior knights of the order, a gentleman uſher, daily waiter, carrying the ſword of ſtate. The ſword being delivered by the earl of Breadalbane to the ſovereign, his royal highneſs, kneeling, was knighted: then the earl of Cholmondley, having received the ribbon from Bath king of arms, preſented it to the ſovereign, who put the ribbon over his royal highneſs's right ſhoulder: after which his royal highneſs kiſſed his majeſty's hand; and, riſing up, retired.

The ceremony was performed after the levee, in his majeſty's cloſet, ſeveral great officers of the court being preſent.

His majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed, in conſideration of the tender years of his royal highneſs prince Frederick, to grant a diſpenſation under his royal ſign-manual, and ſeal of the order, declaring it to be his royal pleaſure, that the conferring the degree of knighthood by the ſword of ſtate ſhall be ſufficient to inveſt his royal highneſs fully and effectually with this order, in as ample manner as if his royal highneſs had perſonally performed all the accuſtomed ſolemnities. [*Gazette*].

As the hon. Miſs Finch, daughter of lady Charlotte Finch, was ſitting in her apartments at St. James's, a ſpark from the grate ſet fire to her apron, which in an inſtant burſt into a flame. Her cries having alarmed the ſervants, it was happily extinguiſhed juſt time enough to ſave her life.

The froſt was ſo ſevere in the weſt of England, that a carpenter, at work for Mr. Robbins, of Didbarton in Glouceſterſhire, having put a key into his mouth, loſt the ſkin of his lips by taking it out again. The cold at Hudſon's Bay, and in Greenland, is ſo ſevere at certain

certain ſeaſons, that cold iron has the effect of red-hot iron on the hand that touches it.

A letter from Rome obſerves, that all the diſaſtrous events that can affect the church, ſeem to be united under the preſent pope. In France, Spain, Portugal, and Naples, the Jeſuits are expelled. In Poland, where the church is poſſeſſed of great eſtates, they talk of reuniting them to the government. The nobility of the kingdom, though Roman Catholics, yet alarmed at the too great power of the clergy, are come, it is ſaid, into the propoſal; to which is added, that the primate himſelf is not far from being of the ſame way of thinking.

The faculty of Theology at Paris have printed their decree of cenſure on the book of Beliſarius. It forms a volume of 123 pages in 4to. in Latin and French. The faculty, who thereby immortalize that which they would proſcribe, have confined themſelves to fifteen propoſitions extracted from the fifteenth chapter of Monſ. de Marmontel's work, inſtead of thirty-ſeven, which their commiſſioners had at firſt deſigned to condemn.

They write from Warſaw, of the 21ſt paſt, that the great affair of the Diſſidents was entirely concluded and ſigned to their advantage. They and the Greeks are to have a church in this capital, temples and ſchools in all the diſtricts of the provinces of the kingdom, and of the great dutchy of Lithuania: on condition that, if they have a mind to build any in the towns, they ſhall be obliged to obtain leave for that purpoſe from the king: the nobles, however, ſhall be at liberty to grant them the ſame favour in their reſpective territories. Further, the Diſſidents and diſunited may make uſe of bells and organs, adminiſter baptiſm, marry and bury, according to their own form, without the leaſt obſtacle.

The ambaſſador from the republic of Venice at Rome has received the following account of the inſurrection in Dalmatia: 'In the province of Montenero, which is tributary to the grand ſignior, and which borders upon the Venetian Dalmatia, a foreigner, who has gone by the name of Stefano, and for ſome time exerciſed the profeſſion of a phyſician in that province, has publicly declared himſelf to be the Czar Peter III. pretending that the report of his death was deſignedly ſpread at the time, but that he had found means to eſcape from his priſon. Under favour of this name, and ſeconded by the Caloyers, ſchiſmatic Greek monks, who have great influence over the inhabitants, he has got himſelf publicly acknowledged for the Czar, not only by the people, but likewiſe by the biſhop and all the other orders; ſo that he is already at the head of ſome thouſand ſoldiers. It is reckoned, that in the province of Montenero there are 30,000 men able to bear arms; and his ſituation is very advantageous, becauſe he is incloſed by inacceſſible mountains. The people there are extremely attached to the name of Moſcovite, as well on account of the conformity of their religion, as becauſe the ſovereigns of Ruſſia have always employed the neceſſary means to maintain a great influence amongſt them. The pretended Peter III.

is ſaid to be a man of ſpirit, a fine figure, and ſeems to abound in money, which he diſtributes with profuſion to his ſoldiers. It is added, that the republic of Venice, fearing the conſequences of this enterprize, has ſent orders for the immediate march of all the infantry and other troops from Dalmatia to Cataro, a town of that province, which is not above a mile from Montenero.'

Within theſe few years a ſet of people have been diſcovered in Denmark, ſeized with a diſorder of mind that is extremely dangerous to ſociety. This is an imagination, that, by committing premeditated murder, and being afterwards condemned to die for it, they are the better able, by public marks of repentance and converſion, as they go to the ſcaffold, to prepare themſelves for death, and work out their own ſalvation. A little while ago, one of theſe wretches murdered a child out of the ſame principle. In order, however, to take from theſe wretches all hope of obtaining their end, and to extirpate the evil, the king has iſſued an ordinance, by which his majeſty forbids the puniſhing them with death; and enacts, that they ſhall be branded in the forehead with an hot iron, and whipped: that they ſhall afterwards be confined, for the reſt of their days, in an houſe of correction, in order to be kept there to hard labour; and laſtly, that every year, on the day of their crime, they ſhall be whipped anew in public.—Another mark of his Daniſh majeſty's paternal goodneſs to his ſubjects has appeared in the encouragement and protection extended to the ſociety of artiſts lately eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen, to which he has ordered a yearly penſion of 10,000 crowns to be iſſued from the royal treaſury, to be applied in ſupporting the neceſſitous, and in rewarding thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves by their merit.

A pamphlet has lately been publiſhed at Paris, in favour of the Jews, in which the author has ſhewn the eminent advantages which every nation reaps in its commerce from the encouragement and protection of that people. It is written with a view to obtain a religious toleration for that people; but it is doubted whether the enthuſiaſm of the country will ſuffer ſuch arguments to have any weight.

The honourable Mr. Montagu, the celebrated traveller, who has lately entertained the learned with his journey to the Written Mountains, is now viſiting the Turkiſh dominions. He was received with uncommon reſpect at Conſtantinople, after traverſing Salonica, and viewing the iſlands in the Archipelago. Much may be expected from the indefatigable reſearches of this extraordinary perſonage, of whom the ingenious Mr. Samuel Sharp, in his letters from Italy, gives this account—"One of the moſt curious ſights amongſt the curioſities of Venice, was the famous Mr. Montagu. He was juſt arrived from the Eaſt. He had travelled through the Holy Land, Egypt, Armenia, &c. with the Old and New Teſtament in his hands. He had viſited Mount Sinai, and flattered himſelf he had been on the very part of the rock where Moſes ſpake face to face with God Almighty. His beard reached down to his breaſt, and the dreſs of his head

head was Armenian. He was in the moſt enthuſiaſtic raptures with Arabia, and the Arabs. His bed was the ground; his food rice; his beverage water; his luxury a pipe and coffee. His purpoſe was to return once more among that virtuous people." &c.

By authentic accounts from Rome, the Jeſuits continue to enter into the eccleſiaſtical ſtate on all parts, both by land and ſea. A general diſorder of a cold, with violent pains in the head, and a ſore throat, prevails in ſome part of Italy.

The pope ſeems to be inconſolable on account of the univerſal diſgrace of the Jeſuits. He has prohibited public ſpectacles and the uſual diverſions of the Carnival, and has ordered the prayers which are uſually read in times of affliction and diſtreſs. A memorial has been delivered to the foreign miniſters, wherein the pope complains, "That the king of Naples has violated, in the firſt place, the divine right, by the manner in which his ſoldiers entered into holy places, and by the ſequeſtration of the eccleſiaſtical revenues, without conſulting the biſhops: 2dly, The right of mankind, by forcibly depoſing part of his ſubjects in the dominions of his holineſs, and by marching his troops into a country which was not his own: and, 3dly, The right of good neighbourhood, in not communicating his deſign to the pope, both as the head of the church, and as a temporal prince, who has the ſupreme ſovereignty over Naples." The foreign miniſters have promiſed to ſend this memorial to their reſpective courts.

They write from Warſaw, that it froze ſo hard the beginning of this month that the Viſtula was frozen over, and people rode over it the 7th inſtant on horſeback; but a ſtorm aroſe the day before yeſterday, which the night following broke up the ice, and great miſchief enſued. As ſoon as the ſeaſon will permit we ſhall proceed in our new buildings, which are greatly increaſed, and much wanted, on account of the great increaſe of inhabitants, owing to the encouragement which the king gives for promoting manufactures and trade. There are already upwards of 200 new houſes.

There is talk of a treaty of commerce, by which the Engliſh are to have the ſole liberty of going to load oil and wine with the Corſicans. It is alſo ſaid, that Paoli has made ſolicitation for engaging the court of Turin to evacuate the two ſmall iſlands, which it lately took poſſeſſion of in the neighbourhood of Corſica.

Mount Salga, in Hungary, lately burſt into a flame, and ſet fire to a conſiderable tract of country, from which iſſues an intolerable ſtench of ſulphur.

The French have forbidden the entrance of any Engliſh ſhips into the ports of Guadaloupe and Martinico, on any pretence whatſoever.

The Spaniards have likewiſe forbidden Engliſh ſhips from lying more than twenty-four hours at Monto Chriſti; and have threatened the logwood cutters if they preſume to ſettle or cut logwood at Spirito Santo.

A commiſſary of war was diſpatched from Baſtia by count Marbœuf, commander in chief of the French troops in Corſica; and

with this commiſſary the nation entered into articles of a neutrality and ſuſpenſion of arms, till the expiring of the term of four years, as agreed upon between France and Genoa, by the treaty of 1764.

A fire having broke out at a druggiſt's in Florence, in the middle of the night, after conſuming that and the adjoining houſes, it reached one occupied by a man who kept wild beaſts for ſhew, among which were two lions, a tyger, and three bears; thoſe animals got looſe, and ran through the city, which reſounded with the cries of the unhappy people who became a prey to their fury. A hundred men were ordered in purſuit of them, and they were ſo fortunate as to kill two of the bears, one lion, and the tyger; but the other lion and bear eſcaped their vigilance. As ſoon as day appeared, were ſeen with horror the dreadful ravage made by the fire, but ſtill more by thoſe animals, upwards of an hundred perſons being killed, and a much greater number wounded, before they could be deſtroyed.

From the Boſton (New-England) Gazette, at the top of which is printed in Italicks, *Save your money, and you ſave your country.*

Boſton, Nov. 2. At a meeting of the freeholders and other inhabitants of the town of Boſton, legally aſſembled at Faneuil-hall, on Wedneſday the 28th of October, 1767, (the hon. James Ottis, Eſq; moderator) a written addreſs to the inhabitants, ſubſcribed Philo Patriæ, recommending œconomy and manufactures, was, by their order, read:

The town then took into conſideration the petition of a number of the inhabitants, 'That ſome effectual meaſures might be agreed upon to promote induſtry, œconomy, and manufactures; thereby to prevent the unneceſſary importation of European commodities; which threaten the country with poverty and ruin: whereupon, in a very large and full meeting, the following votes and reſolutions were paſſed unanimouſly.

Whereas the exceſſive uſe of foreign ſuperfluities is the chief cauſe of the preſent diſtreſſed ſtate of this town, as it is thereby drained of its money; which misfortune is likely to be increaſed by means of the late additional burthens and impoſitions on the trade of the province, which threaten the country with poverty and ruin:

Therefore voted, that this town will take all prudent and legal meaſures to encourage the produce and manufactures of this province, and to leſſen the uſe of ſuperfluities, and particularly the following enumerated articles imported from abroad; viz. loaf-ſugar, cordage, anchors, coaches, chaiſes, and carriages of all ſorts, horſe-furniture, men and women's hats, men's and women's apparel ready made, houſhold furniture, gloves, men's and women's ſhoes, ſole-leather, ſheathing and deck nails, gold and ſilver and thread lace of all ſorts, gold and ſilver buttons, wrought plate of all ſorts, diamonds, ſtone and paſte ware, ſnuff, muſtard, clocks and watches, ſilverſmiths and jewellers ware, broad cloths that coſt above 10s. per yard, muffs, furs, and tippets, and all ſorts of millinery ware, ſtarch, women's and child-

children's ſtays, fire-engines, china ware, ſilk and cotton velvets, gauze, pewterers hollow-ware, linſeed-oil, glue, lawns, cambricks, ſilks of all kinds for garments, malt liquors, and cheeſe. And that a ſubſcription for this end be, and hereby is, recommended to the ſeveral inhabitants and houſholders of the town; and that John Rowe, Eſq; Mr. William Greenleafe, Melatiah Bourne, Eſq; Mr. Samuel Auſtin, Mr. Edward Payne, Mr. Edmund Quincy, Tertius John Ruddock, Eſq; Jonathan Williams, Eſq; Joſhua Henſhaw, Eſq; Mr. Henderſon Inches, Mr. Solomon Davis, Joſhua Winſlow, Eſq; and Thomas Cuſhine, Eſq; be a committee to prepare a form for ſubſcription, to report the ſame as ſoon as poſſible; and alſo to procure ſubſcriptions to the ſame.

And whereas it is the opinion of this town, that divers new manufactures may be ſet up in America, to its great advantage, and ſome others carried to a greater extent, particularly thoſe of glaſs and paper:

Therefore voted, that this town will, by all prudent ways and means, encourage the uſe and conſumption of glaſs and paper made in any of the Britiſh American colonies, and more eſpecially in this province.

Then the meeting adjourned till three o'clock in the afternoon; when the committee, appointed in the forenoon to prepare a form for ſubſcription, reported as follows:

Whereas this province labours under a heavy debt, incurred in the courſe of the late war; and the inhabitants by this means muſt be for ſome time ſubject to very burthenſome taxes: and as our trade has for ſome years been on the decline, and is now particularly under great embarraſſments, and burthened with heavy impoſitions, our medium very ſcarce, and the balance of trade greatly againſt this country:

We therefore, the ſubſcribers, being ſenſible that it is abſolutely neceſſary, in order to extricate us out of theſe embarraſſed and diſtreſſed circumſtances, to promote induſtry, œconomy, and manufactures among ourſelves, and by this means prevent the unneceſſary importation of European commodities, the exceſſive uſe of which threatens the country with poverty and ruin, do promiſe and engage, to and with each other, that we will encourage the uſe and conſumption of all articles manufactured in any of the Britiſh American colonies, and more eſpecially in this province; and that we will not, from and after the 31ſt of December next enſuing, purchaſe any of the following articles imported from abroad, viz. loaf-ſugar, and all the other articles enumerated above.

And we further agree, ſtrictly to adhere to the late regulation reſpecting funerals, and will not uſe any gloves but what are manufactured here, nor procure any new garments, upon ſuch an occaſion, but what ſhall be abſolutely neceſſary.

The above report having been conſidered, the queſtion was put, whether the ſame ſhall be accepted? voted unanimouſly in the affirmative.

The repreſentatives of the town

have made humble application to his excellency the governor, that he will convene the general aſſembly as ſoon as may be.

WILLIAM COOPER, Town-Clerk.

Married lately, Mr. Chriſtian Weſtreſs, jeweller, in Weſt-ſtreet, Seven-dials, aged 40, to Mrs. Suſannah Newbury, of Monmouth-ſtreet, aged 89.

Mr. William Robinſon, ſurveyor to the city hoſpitals, who died lately, has left to Chriſt's hoſpitals 2000l. to St. Bartholomew's hoſpital 2000l. to Bethlem hoſpital 2000l. to St. Luke's hoſpital 2000l. to the city of London lying-in-hoſpital in Alderſgate-ſtreet 2000l. and to Raine's hoſpital, for the apprenticing of girls, 2000l. as alſo 200l. to the charity-ſchool of Bread-ſtreet and Cordwainers ward, for which he alſo in his life-time built a ſchool-houſe, which coſt him upwards of 1000l.

Died at Groningen, in Holland, Abel Gerbrands, a wheelwright, at the age of 118 years, two months, and ten days.

Mr. Simon Gilliwray, at St. Kilda, in the 113th year of his age, who never was out of the iſland.

At Poplar, Mrs. Mary Thomas, aged 102 years.

In Ireland, Darby Neale, aged 117 years.

Thomas Probyn of Coninſbury hoſpital in Hereford, aged 103 years.

Margaret Edwards, of Beſlieſh in Montgomeryſhire, aged 118 years.

Mr. William Maſſinger, formerly a coachmaker in Gray's inn-lane, aged 102 years.

A general bill of all the chriſtenings and burials from December 16, 1766, to December 15, 1767.

Chriſtened		Buried	
Males	8211	Males	11306
Females	7769	Females	11306
In all	15980	In all	22612

Increaſed in the burials this year, 1299.

Died under two years of age			7668
Between	2 and	5	1821
	5 and	10	765
	10 and	20	787
	20 and	30	1899
	30 and	40	2145
	40 and	50	2376
	50 and	60	1858
	60 and	70	1669
	70 and	80	1083
	80 and	90	476
	90 and	100	60
		101	1
		102	1
		103	2
		105	1
			22612

Supplement to the bills of births, &c. for the year 1766, at the end of our Chronicle for laſt year.

The number of deaths at Venice from the 28th of Feb. 1766, to the 28th of February this year, was 5171; and that of births 4984; ſo that the deaths exceeded the births by 187. The foundling children brought to the hoſpital of piety, during the ſame term, amounted to 204.

Bills

Bills of births, &c. for the year 1767.

Paris. Born 19749. Deaths 19875. Increaſed in births this year 976. Increaſed in deaths 181.

Amſterdam. Births 4908. Deaths 6999. Increaſed in the births 361. Decreaſed in the deaths 272.

Copenhagen. Births in this city amounted to 2957, the deaths to 3361, and the marriages to 909. In the dutchy of Schleſwig the births were 6971, and the deaths 6384. In the dutchy of Holſtein the births were 4771, and the deaths 3736.

Turin. Born in this city 1548 boys, and 1408 girls, in all 2956: And the number of deaths was 5980, viz. 935 men, 886 women, 1169 boys, and 2990 girls. The number of inhabitants in the city, ſuburbs, and territory of Turin, was computed to be 79,818; of whom 41,807 were men and boys, and 38,011 of the other ſex.

Brunſwick. Births 1241. Deaths 1022.

Births, marriages, and burials in the city of Durham, for 1767, were as follow: Chriſtenings, males 77, females 72, in all 149. Marriages 65. Buried, males 79, females 76, in all 155.

At Whitby, laſt year, there were chriſtened 298, buried 177, and married 55.

In the city of Cheſter, laſt year, there were 351 chriſtenings, 143 marriages, and 367 burials. Decreaſed in chriſtenings, 18. Increaſed in burials, 17. Decreaſed in marriages, 10.

Stockholm. According to a calculation made in 1760, and lately publiſhed, there were then in this kingdom 1,127,938 men and boys, and 1,255,175 women and girls; in all 2,313,123 perſons. The number of noblemen was 10,045. The clergy, with the ſchools and colleges, amounted to 4488, or including their wives and children, 18,197. And the number of thoſe who had a right of freedom in cities and towns, was 162,888. It appeared there had been an increaſe of 2773 inhabitants ſince the year 1758.

BIRTHS for the year 1767.

Jan. 14. Great Dutcheſs of Tuſcany, of a princeſs.

16. Lady Bellaſyſe, of a daughter.

Counteſs of Harborough, of a ſon.

23. Counteſs of Suffolk, of a daughter.

Lady Catharine Dubois, daughter to the late earl of Angleſea, of a ſon.

Lady of the biſhop of St. Davids, of a daughter.

Feb. 6. Counteſs of Shannon, of a daughter.

Lady of Sir Edw. Swinburn of Capheaton, Bart. of her fifth ſon.

Lady Halkerton, wife to the Hon. Anthony Browne, of a daughter.

24. Counteſs of Buckinghamſhire, of a daughter.

March 7. Lady Lambton, of a ſon.

Lady of Sir G. Robinſon, Bart. of a ſon.

22. Lady

22. Lady Grosvenor, of a son and heir.

April 1. Lady Elizabeth Wemyss, of a son.

3. Lady Viscountess Hinchinbrook, of a son.

11. Lady Garlies, of a daughter.

Countess of Donegal, of a daughter.

Lady of Sir James Caldwell, Bart. of a son.

May 5. Lady of the Hon. and Rev. Mr. Digby, of a daughter.

13. Countess of Errol, of a son and heir.

Lady of Sir Thomas Bingham, of a son.

24. Countess of Dundonald, of a son.

31. Lady of Lord Willoughby de Brooke, of a daughter.

Princess of Brazil, of a prince.

June 7. Lady Viscountess Clanwilliam, of a daughter.

15. Lady of Sir Gervas Clifton, Bart. of a son.

Lady Mary Walker, of a daughter.

Dutchess of Athole, of a son.

21. Lady of Sir Thomas Broughton, of a son.

Lady of Sir Brooke Bridges, of a son.

July 7. Lady of Sir George Armitage, of a daughter.

13. Lady of the Hon. Col. Fitzroy, of a daughter.

Lady of the Bishop of Elphin, in Ireland, of a son.

Countess of Darnley, in Ireland, of a son.

24. Lady of Lord Viscount Weymouth, of a daughter.

Aug. 3. Lady of Sir John Webb, of a son.

20. The Right Hon. the Marchioness of Tavistock, of a son.

Lady of the Earl of Louth, in Ireland, of a daughter.

Lady of Lord George Sackville, of a son and heir.

Sept. 23. Lady of Lord Forbes, of a son.

Lady of Sir Wm. Oglander, of a son.

Oct. 4. Lady of Sir Jacob Wolfe, of a daughter.

16. Lady of Sir Digby Legard, of a son.

Lady of Lord Clifford, of a son.

21. Lady of the Earl of Cork and Orrery, of a son.

Lady Ashbroke, of a son.

Lady of Lord Archibald Hamilton, of a son and heir.

Lately, the Lady of Sir Walter Blount, of a son and heir.

28. Princess Louisa, sister to the King of Denmark, and consort of Prince Charles of Hesse Cassel, of a princess.

Nov. 2. Her Majesty delivered of a prince.

3. The Lady of the Hon. Mr. Fox, of a daughter, at Ld. Holland's house in Piccadilly.

Lady

Lady Caroline Edwards, of three ſons.
Lady of the Hon. Edward Bouverie, of a ſon.

Dec. 4. Counteſs of Egmont, of a daughter.
Counteſs of Dartmouth, of a ſon.
12. Dutcheſs of Beaufort, of a ſon.
18. Counteſs of Portſmouth, of a ſon.
Lady of the Right Hon. Lord Howe, of a daughter.
Counteſs of Ancram, of a daughter.

Lately, Marchioneſs of Lothian, of a daughter.
Counteſs of Selkirk, of a ſon.
Dutcheſs of Leinſter, of a ſon.
30. Lady Viſcounteſs Townſhend, of a ſon, at the Caſtle of Dublin.
Lady Molyneaux, in Dublin, of a ſon.

MARRIAGES, 1767.

Jan. 1. Col. Ligonier, nephew of Earl Ligonier, to Miſs Pitt, daughter to George Pitt, Eſq; Embaſſador at Turin.

Feb. 25. The Earl of Strathmore, to Miſs Bowes of Durham, the richeſt heireſs in Europe; her preſent fortune is one million, and forty thouſand pounds; beſides a great jointure on the death of her mother, and a large eſtate on the demiſe of an uncle.

March 3. The Earl of Eſſex, to Miſs Bladon.
Hon. John Byng, ſon of the late Lord Torrington, to the eldeſt daughter of Capt. Forreſt of the Navy.
20. Duke of Buccleugh, to Lady Betty Montague.
Sir Jeffery Amherſt, to Miſs Cary, daughter to Gen. Cary.

April 2. Sir John Eden, Bart. to Miſs Johnſon.
16. Earl of Barrymore, to Lady Amelia Stanhope, daughter to the Earl of Harrington.

May 10. The Earl of Angleſea, to the Hon. Miſs Lyttelton, only daughter of Lord Lyttelton.
28. Lord Burgherſh, eldeſt ſon to the Earl of Weſtmoreland, to Lady Suſan Gordon.
Sir Charles Cope, Bart. to Miſs Biſhop, daughter of Sir Cecil Biſhop.
30. The Hon. Wm. Craven, nephew to Lord Craven, to Lady Betty Berkeley, ſiſter to the Earl of Berkeley.

June 1. The Right Hon. Lord Waltham, to Miſs Coe.
14. The Hon. Mr. Damer, eldeſt ſon of Lord, Milton, to Miſs Conway,

way, daughter of the Right Hon. Henry Seymour Conway, Esq;

The Earl of Hopetown, to Lady Betty Leslie.

17. Right Hon. Lord William Seymour, brother to the Duke of Somerset, to Miss Maltravers.

July 6. His Excellency Count Bruhl, Minister extraordinary from the Elector of Saxony, to the Countess Dowager of Egremont.

12. Duke of Chandos, to Miss Major, daughter to Sir John Major.

Earl of Thanet, to the Hon. Miss Polly Sackville, daughter to Lord John.

24. The Princess Louisa Wilhelmina of Brandenburgh, to the reigning Prince of Anhalt Dessau.

27. The Earl of Dalhousie, to Miss Glen.

Charles Howard, Esq; presumptive heir to the Duke of Norfolk, to Miss Coppinger.

Sept. 1. Ralph Payne, Esq; to Mademoiselle Kobel, daughter of the late General. She came to England with the Princess Poniatowsky, sister to the King of Poland.

2. Lord Adam Gordon, to the Dutchess Dowager of Athol.

18. William Clayton, Esq; to Lady Fermor, sister to the Earl of Pomfret.

Oct. 4. The Prince of Orange, at Berlin, to the Princess of Prussia.

6. Lord Viscount Palmerston, to Miss Poole, daughter of the late Sir Francis Poole.

9. The Earl of Harborough, to Miss Cave, eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Cave.

18. The Duke of Gordon, to Miss Jane Maxwell.

Dec. 12. Hon. Henry Tracy, brother to Lord Tracy, to Miss Weaver.

Principal PROMOTIONS for the year 1767, from the London Gazette, &c.

Jan. 13. Thomas Champneys, of Orchardley, in Somersetshire, Esq; and his heirs male, the dignity of a Baronet.

— 17. Richard Stonehewer, Esq; a Commissioner of Excise, in the room of William Cayley, Esq; deceased.

Feb. 7. Rev. and Hon. Frederick Hervey, to the Bishopric of Cloyne, in Ireland.

March 14. Edward Baker, Esq; Consul General at Tripoli.

— 24. The Marquis of Lorn, Commander in chief of the forces, &c. in Scotland, in the room of Lieutenant General Lord George Beauclerc. — James Burnet of Monboddo, Esq; a Lord of Council and Session in Scotland, in the room of Lord Milton, deceased. —Hon Robert Walpole, Secretary to the extraordinary embassy to the

the court of Spain, in the room of Lord Cardroſs, who reſigns.

April 16. Sir Laurence Dundas, Vice Admiral of Shetland and Orkney, John Elliot, Eſq; Vice Admiral of Weſt Florida.

May 9. The Duke of Bolton, Vice Admiral of the Iſle of Wight.

June 9. John Hort, Eſq; Conſul-General at Liſbon.

— 27. Ralph Foley, Eſq; of Thorplee, and his heirs male, the dignity of a Baronet.

July 28. John Powel and George John Cooke, Eſqrs. to be Joint-Agents and Solicitors to all the regiments and independent companies of invalids.

Auguſt 12. Right Hon. Lord Viſcount Townſhend, to be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

— 18. Right Hon. Carolina Campbell, Counteſs of Dalkeith, the dignity of a Baroneſs, by the title of Baroneſs of Greenwich, with ſucceſſion and the dignity of Baron to her heirs male by the Right Hon. Charles Townſhend, Eſq;—Lord Howth, of the kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs male, the dignity of Viſcount St. Lawrence, and Earl of Howth.—Charles Baron of Coloony, and his heirs male, the dignity of an Earl of the kingdom of Ireland, by the title of Earl of Belmont. — Conſtantine Phipps, Eſq; and his heirs male, the dignity of a Baron of the ſaid kingdom, by the title of Baron Mulgrave of New Roſs, in the county of Wexford.

— 28. Mr. Lowndes, ſon to Charles Lowndes, Eſq; of the treaſury, a Commiſſioner of Exciſe, in the room of Sir Henry Poole, deceaſed.—Thomas Bradſhaw, Eſq; Secretary of the Treaſury, in the room of Charles Lowndes, Eſq; who reſigns. — Lord Frederick Campbell, Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.—Mr. Bowden, Maſter of the Horſe.—Thomas Smith, Eſq; Deputy Uſher of the Black Rod to the Houſe of Lords in Ireland.—Right Rev. and Hon. Dr. Harvey, Biſhop of Cloyne, and Arthur Upton, Eſq; Privy Counſellors in Ireland.—William Davis, one of the four principal Clerks of the Treaſury, in the room of Thomas Bradſhaw. — Richard Hopkins, Eſq; Clerk of the Green Cloth, in the room of Sir John Evelyn, deceaſed. — ——— Southwell, Eſq; Deputy Judge Advocate, Commiſſary of Muſters and Receiver-General of the iſland of Minorca.—John Randolph, Eſq; Attorney-General of Virginia. — William Blair, Eſq; Clerk of the Privy Council, in the room of William Sharpe, deceaſed.

Sept. 8. John Hort, Eſq; of Caſtle-Strange, Middleſex, and his heirs male, to the dignity of a Baronet. — William Burton, John Wyndham Bowyer, David Papillon, George Lewis Scott, Thomas Bowlby, Richard Bagot, George Quarme, and Richard Stonehewer, together with Anthony Lucas, Eſqrs. Commiſſioners for the management and receipt of his Majeſty's revenue of Exciſe, and other Duties.—Henry Hutton, John Temple, William Burch, Charles Paxton, and John Robinſon, Eſqrs. Commiſſioners for the receipt and management of his Majeſty's Cuſtoms and other Duties in America.—James Porter, Eſq; Comptroller on the caſhier of the accounts of the Cuſtoms and other Duties in America.—Charles Stuart, Eſq; Caſhier and Paymaſter of his Majeſty's revenues of

Cuſtoms

Cuſtoms and other Duties in America. — Philip Sharpe, Eſq; Keeper of the Privy Council Records.

— 12. Right Hon. William Lord Mansfield, Chief Juſtice of his Majeſty's Court of King's Bench, Chancellor of his Majeſty's Exchequer, in the room of Charles Townſhend, Eſq; deceaſed.

— 19. Peter Dennis, of Blackmanſtone, in Romney Marſh, Kent, and his heirs male, the dignity of a Baronet.

Oct. 2. Stephen Cottrel, Eſq; one of the Clerks in ordinary to the Privy Council.

— 13. Dr. Markham, Dean of Chriſt Church, Oxford, in the room of Dr. Gregory, deceaſed. —Dr. Newcome, Dean of Rocheſter, in the room of Dr. Markham. — The Biſhop of Sodor and Man, to the Maſterſhip of Sherborn hoſpital, Durham, worth 800l. a year.

Oct. 24. Sir William Burnaby, Rear Admiral of the Red, and his heirs male, the Dignity of a Baronet. — Edward Young, Chriſtopher Rigby, John Frenchard, Thomas Wyndham, Daniel Bull, George Blount, and Edward Tucker, Eſqrs. Commiſſioners of Taxes. —His Royal Highneſs the Duke of Glouceſter, Keeper of Cranburn Chace, Lodge, &c. in the room of the Duke of York.—Sir George Maccartney, Ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, to the Court of Ruſſia. — James Hewitt, Eſq; a Juſtice of the King's Bench, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, in the room of John Baron Bowes, deceaſed; alſo Baron Lifford, of Lifford in the county of Donnegal.

Nov. 28. Thomas Shirley, Eſq; Governor of the Bahama iſlands.

Dec. 1. Lord North, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and a Lord of the Treaſury.

— 5. Thomas Townſhend, jun. Eſq; Joint Paymaſter of the forces, in the room of Lord North.

— 23. Granville, Earl Gower, Lord Preſident of the Council, in the room of the Earl of Northington. — Thomas Townſhend and George Onſlow, Eſqrs. ſworn of the Privy Council. — His Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland, a Knight of the Garter.

DEATHS, 1767.

Jan. 4. At Rome, Cardinal Simonetti.

Marquis of Rochefoucault, at Lyons, aged 89 years.

12. Lord Viſcount Mayo, of the kingdom of Ireland, in Pall-mall.

17. The Ducheſs Dowager of Athol.

Hon. Miſs Maitland, granddaughter to the late Earl of Lauderdale.

Hon. Mr. Bathurſt, eldeſt ſon of Lord Bathurſt.

Lately, Right Hon. Lady Phillippa Connel, ſiſter of the late Earl of Abercorn.

Feb. 1. Right Hon. the Counteſs of Harborough.

4. Right Hon. Counteſs of Suffolk, daughter to Robert Lord Trevor, in child-bed.

7. Hon. Edward Howard, Eſq; heir to the Duke of Norfolk.

10. Sir Robert Long, Bart.

Car-

Cardinal Veroneſe, Biſhop of Padua, in the 82d year of his age.

William, Baron O'Kelly, general of foot, at Vienna.

The Dutcheſs of Fronſac, daughter-in-law to Marſhal Richelieu, and niece to the Counteſs of Guerchy.

Feb. 14. Lady of the late Sir John Strickland, Bart.

Lady of the Right Hon. the Earl of Fortroſe, and daughter to the Earl of Harrington.

Lady Forteſcue, mother to Lord Forteſcue.

Lately at Liverpool, Mrs. Sarah Boteler, relict of Francis Boteler, of St. Anne's, Weſtminſter, Eſq; deſcended in the male line from the ancient Dukes of Normandy, progenitors of the Kings of England for upwards of 700 years paſt.

March 13. At Verſailles, her Royal Highneſs the Duphineſs. Her Highneſs was born at Dreſden, the 4th of November, 1731, of Frederick Auguſtus III. King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, and Mary Joſepha Benedict, Archdutcheſs of Auſtria, eldeſt daughter to the Emperor Joſeph. She was married the 9th of November, 1747, to Louis, Dauphin of France, who died at Fontainbleau the 20th of December, 1765. By this prince ſhe has left five children, three ſons and two daughters.

22. The moſt noble Francis Ruſſel, Marquis of Taviſtock, only ſon to his grace the Duke of Bedford. His lordſhip was born September 26, 1739, and married Lady Ann Keppel, ſiſter to the Earl of Albemarle, by whom he has left two infant ſons, and the Marchioneſs with child. His lordſhip's amiable qualities make him univerſally lamented as a public loſs; and his death is the more to be regretted, conſidering the melancholy accident which cauſed it, being as follows: On Tueſday the 10th inſtant, his lordſhip being a ſtag-hunting, leapt his horſe over a low hedge towards the end of the chace, when the horſe being much fatigued and jaded with the length of the chace, fell with him, and his lordſhip not being able to quit the reins, was trampled on, whereby ſeveral fractures were made in his head.

24th. Hon. Miſs Harriet Monſon, youngeſt Daughter of Lord Monſon.

Right Hon. Counteſs of Milltown, in Ireland.

Right Hon. Eliz. Lady Willoughby de Broke.

26. Hon. Charles Maitland, youngeſt ſon to the Earl of Lauderdale.

The only ſon of the Earl of Shannon.

28. Sir Henry Edwards, Bart. at Shrewſbury.

Lady of Sir James Livingſton, Bart. in Scotland.

April 5. Lady of Sir Thomas Gooch, Bart.

Charlotte Wilhelmina, born Princeſs of Saxe Cobourg Saafield, Counteſs Dowager of Hanau.

13. Lady Mary Bertie, eldeſt daughter to the Duke of Ancaſter.

Right Hon. Lord Viſcount Doneraile, at Bath.

16. Right Hon. Jane Dutcheſs of Argyll. She was one of the maids of honour to Queen Anne, and Queen Caroline when Princeſs of Wales. Her grace had iſſue five daughters, viz. Lady Caroline, married firſt to Francis Earl of Dalkeith, and ſecondly to the Right Hon. Charles Townſhend, the preſent Chancellor of the Exchequer;

quer; Lady Anne, married to William Earl of Stafford; Lady Jane, who died in her 12th year; Lady Betty, married to the Right Hon. James Stewart Mackenzie, brother to the Earl of Bute; Lady Mary, married to Edward Viſcount Coke, heir apparent of Thomas Earl of Leiceſter, and to his mother Margaret, Baroneſs Clifford, who left her a widow without iſſue.

Right Hon. William King, Baron of Oakham in Surry.

23. Right Hon. Anth. Browne, Lord Viſcount Montacute, aged 80 years.

Right Hon. Lady George Sutton, wife to Lord George Sutton, of Kelham Notts, third ſon to the Duke of Rutland.

Right Hon. Lord St. John of Bletſoe, at Nice.

29. Sir John Morgan, Bart.

Lady Monckton, at Edinburgh.

Lady Dowager Frederick, in Saville-Row.

May 5. Lady of Sir Bellingham Graham, Bart. in Yorkſhire.

Lady Croft in Kenſington.

22. Lady Mary Lyon, ſiſter to the Earl of Strathmore.

At his houſe in Red lion-ſquare, the Right Hon. Philip Jacob, Baron de Soeſdick Van Cloon, Lord Rynſwick, formerly one of the States of Holland.

Sir William Gage, Bart.

29. The Empreſs Conſort at Vienna, of the ſmall pox; ſhe was ſiſter to the Elector of Bavaria.

30. The Hon. Major Gen. John Boſcawen, ſecond brother to Lord Falmouth.

June 1. John Auguſtus, Duke of Saxony, ſecond brother to the reigning Duke. He was born April 14, 1745.

His Highneſs the reigning prince of Hohenloe Kircheberg, during divine ſervice at the cathedral of Anſpach, whilſt a ſermon was preaching on this text, "Remember, man, thy latter end," was ſeized with a paralytic fit, and died inſtantly.

10. Of the ſmall-pox, greatly lamented, Prince Henry Charles, next brother to the Prince Royal of Pruſſia.

21. Lady Viſcounteſs Dowager Bleſſington in Ireland, aged 84 years.

Lately, Mr. de Hulſen, Lieut. General of Infantry, knight of the Black Eagle, and Governor of Berlin.

The Right Hon. Lord Hope, eldeſt ſon of the Earl of Hopetown; he was aged 27, and lately returned from America.

23. The Hon. Lieutenant Gen. Thomas Brudenel, Governor of Windſor Caſtle.

Sir John Evelyn, Bart.

Princeſs Auguſta Wilhelmina, aunt to the reigning Prince of Anhalt Bernbourg.

Sir Charles Bond, Bart. at Beaumaris in Angleſea.

July 1. Hon. Col. John Mordaunt, brother to the Earl of Peterborough.

5. James Earl of Moray, one of the ſixteen Peers of Scotland.

The Counteſs Dowager of Glaſgow.

8. Sir Henry Poole, Bart. one of the Commiſſioners of Exciſe.

12. Sir William Bowyer, Bart. of Denham Court.

Sir William Twyſden, Bart.

22. Right Hon. John Lord Bowes, Lord Chancellor of Ireland.

Right Hon. Counteſs Dowager of Suffolk, aged 86.

The

The Prince Primate of Poland, at Warſaw.

Right Hon. Lady Dawager King.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Hyndford, one of the ſixteen peers of Scotland.

The Lady of Sir Ralph Milbank, Bart. at Bath.

Lately, Col. York in the Portugueſe ſervice. He commanded the artillery at the ſiege of Quebec, and conveyed them up a precipice, where a ſingle man could not mount without the help of buſhes.

The moſt Hon. William Henry Ker, Marquis and Earl of Lothian, Baron Ker of Newbottle and Jedburg, and Knight of the ancient Order of the Thiſtle.

Aug. 1, The celebrated Albinus, at Paris, one of the moſt ſkilful anatomiſts in Europe.

Lord Kinaird, in Scotland.

Sir Wm. Sinclair, a celebrated phyſician.

21. The Hon. and Rev. Allen Bathurſt, ſon to Lord Bathurſt.

22. Lady Mary Elizabeth Bouverie, only daughter to the Earl of Radnor.

Prince Frederick of Deux-Ponts, at Manheim. This prince was a Knight of the Golden Fleece, Grand Croix of the military Order of Maria Thereſa, General Field Marſhal of the empire of their Imperial Majeſties, and of all the troops of the Elector Palatine, Governor of Manheim, General Field Marſhal of the troops of the Circle of the Upper Rhine, and Colonel of ſeveral regiments.

Count Fleming, after a long and painful illneſs, at Dreſden.

Sept. 4. The Right Hon. Charles Townſhend, Eſq; (in the 41ſt year of his age, of a putrid fever) ſecond Commiſſioner of the Treaſury, Chancellor and Under-Treaſurer of the Exchequer, one of his Majeſty's moſt Hon. Privy-council, Member of Parliament for Harwich, and only brother to Lord Viſcount Townſhend. Beſides the offices before mentioned, he paſſed through thoſe of Lord of trade and plantations, Lord of the Admiralty, Treaſurer of his Majeſty's chambers, Secretary at war, Firſt Lord of trade and plantations, and Paymaſter-general of his Majeſty's forces.—Auguſt 15, 1755, he married Lady Caroline, eldeſt daughter and coheireſs of his grace, John late Duke of Argyll and Greenwich (widow of Francis Earl of Dalkeith, ſon and heir of Francis duke of Buccleugh) by whom he has left two ſons and a daughter.

Lady of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, of Garloch.

Lady of Sir William Calvert.

11. Lady of Sir Jarrit Smith, Bart.

17. His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, at Monaco, in Italy.

Count de Guerchy, late ambaſſador to England, in Paris.

24. Lady of Sir Richard Beddingfield, Bart.

Sir Charles Hotham Baronet, nephew to the Earl of Cheſterfield.

Lady of Sir George Pocock, at Nice.

26. Sir Martin Wright, late a juſtice of the King's-bench.

Oct. 1. Lady of Sir John Carlton.

Lady of Sir Gregory Page.

11. Sir John Awbrey, Bart.

Sir Ellis Cunliffe.

Hon. Mrs. Anne Granville, eldeſt daughter to the late Lord Lanſdowne.

Sir David Cunningham, Bart. Lieutenant-general of his Majeſty's forces, and Colonel of the 57th regiment of foot, at his houſe at Livingſtone, about fourteen miles weſt from Edinburgh.

Sir Edmund Thomas, Bart. at Wenvoe-caſtle, in Glamorganſhire, Surveyor of his Majeſty's woods north and ſouth of Trent, Treaſurer to the Princeſs Dowager of Wales, Knight of the ſhire for Glamorganſhire, and Lieutenant-colonel of the militia of that county.

15. The Arch ducheſs Maria Joſepha, betrothed to the King of Naples, of the ſmall-pox at Schonbrun.

16. Cardinal Antonelli, Secretary of the Briefs at Rome.

18. Lady Abdy, at her ſeat in Eſſex, aunt to Sir Anthony Thomas Abdy, Bart. one of his Majeſty's counſel, and Member of parliament for Knareſborough, in Yorkſhire; by whoſe death, it is ſaid, an eſtate of 3000l. per ann. devolves to Sir Anthony.

26. The Hon. General Henry Pulteney, only brother of the late William Earl of Bath, in the 82d year of his age, at Bath-houſe, in Piccadilly. He was abroad in Queen Anne's wars; was promoted to be a Colonel, Auguſt 3, 1733; a Major-general, July 3, 1743; a Lieutenant-general, Auguſt 8, 1747; and General in 1765. He was appointed to the command of the 13th regiment of foot, July 5, 1759; and ſome time after made Governor of Hull. Upon the deceaſe of William late Earl of Bath, without iſſue, in 1764, he became poſſeſſed of his lordſhip's immenſe eſtates, both real and perſonal, ſome few legacies excepted; and in the year following reſigned his regiment and government; the former of which was given to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Glouceſter. William Pulteney, Eſq; ſon of Sir William Johnſtone, who married Miſs Pulteney, niece to the late Earl of Bath, and the General, who ſome time ago changed his name to Pulteney, by virtue of his Majeſty's royal mandate, will by the General's death be poſſeſſed of a very large eſtate.

27. Right Hon. Charles Bennet, Earl of Tankerville, and Baron of Oſſulſton.

On the 2d inſtant, her Serene Highneſs Louiſa Dorothea, of Saxe Meininghen, reigning Ducheſs of Saxe Gotha, in the 49th year of her age.

Nov. 7. Don Joſeph de Mellis, in Maddox-ſtreet, aged eighty-two. He was the oldeſt Captain in the Engliſh ſervice.

18. The Hon. Miſs Charlotte Finch, at the Hot-wells, Briſtol, daughter to the Hon. Lady Charlotte Finch, governeſs to the young princes.

The Hon. Mrs. Hatton, ſiſter to Lord Hatton.

Lady Elizabeth Griffin at Paddington.

Sir Hugh Brigges, Baronet, at Houghton, in Warwickſhire.

Count de Munich, Senator, and Field Marſhal General of the armies of

of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, at Peterſburg.

Right Hon. Lord Deſart, at Deſart in Ireland.

26. Right Hon. the Counteſs of Northampton.

December 1. Right Hon. Henry David, Earl of Buchan, Lord Auchterhouſe, Cardroſs, and Glendovechi, in the 58th year of his age.

10. Right Hon. John Earl of Rothes.

Hon. Mrs. Croſbie, relict of General Croſbie, ſiſter to the late Earl of Halifax, and grandmother to the preſent Duke of Grafton.

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE.

PROTEST against the reſcinding the Eaſt-India Dividend.

Die Veneris, 26° *Junii*, 1767.

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Diſſentient',

1ſt, BECAUSE the bill, containing, in appearance, nothing but matter of future regulation, is ſo contrived as to operate retroſpectively, and reſcind a dividend actually declared by a general court of the Eaſt-India company on the 6th of May laſt, of ſix 1-4th *per cent.* for one half year, ending at Chriſtmas next; this was, in the argument, avowed to be the principal object of the bill, though the bill itſelf does not even mention that act, or ſuggeſt any reaſon for reſcinding it. And we conceive, that if the meaſure had been ſubſtantially right, yet this manner of doing it is unbecoming the dignity of parliament, which ſhould in all caſes go openly and directly to its object.

2dly, Becauſe this meaſure appears to us to be as exceptionable in the ſubſtance as in the form, being an *ex poſt facto* law, reſcinding a legal act of the company, in the exerciſe of its dominion over its own property, notwithſtanding their application and earneſt entreaties to the contrary, without neceſſity or occaſion, from any conſideration of private juſtice or public utility.

3dly, Becauſe, conſidering the Eaſt-India company as a national object, and the members of it as bound to attend to the intereſt of the public, as well as their own, the dividend they had voted, and which is by this bill to be reſcinded, appears to be liable to no objection; for the only legal reſtriction in the company's power to divide, is, that the ſum total of all the debts which they ſhall owe, do not exceed the value of the principal or capital ſtock or ſtocks, which ſhall be and remain undivided; and it appears by the cleareſt evidence, that the company's effects are amply ſufficient, not only to diſcharge every juſt demand, but that, after even repaying their capital, there will remain a very great ſurplus.

4thly, Becauſe it appears alſo to us, that the dividend declared on the 6th of May is expedient; for the dividend being in fact the only medium whereby to fix and compute the price of the ſtock, as between buyer and ſeller, juſtice to both requires ſuch a dividend as will fix the price as near as may be to the real value. And the dividend of 12 1-half is in that reſpect preferable to a dividend of 10 *per cent.* to which this bill has arbitrarily reſtrained it.

5thly,

5thly, Becauſe it appears to us to have been a dividend regularly declared, the objections which have been made to it upon this head being manifeſtly void of all foundation. We admit, that the court did proceed without an account actually before them; but the want of this account, ſo far as relates to the propriety of the dividend, appears to have been ſufficiently ſupplied. The directors, in their negotiations with the government, and their declarations at former courts, had themſelves propoſed ſuch a dividend, and acknowledged the ability of the company to make it. The proprietors, by theſe and other means, had full reaſon to be ſatisfied of that ability. And the account now produced, examined, and proved, does fully warrant their proceedings, and verify the ideas they then entertained and acted on.

6thly, Becauſe the dividend appears to have been voted by a very numerous court, and ſo nearly unanimous, that no ballot was taken, becauſe none was demanded; and no ballot was demanded, becauſe there was not a competent number of proprietors who diſapproved the meaſure; and though, for that reaſon, the ſenſe of the members preſent only was taken, by holding up of hands, it now appears to be, beyond a doubt, the confirmed deliberate ſenſe of the company; having been reconſidered at no leſs than three ſubſequent courts, convened for the purpoſe of concerting the proper meaſures to ſupport it; at the two laſt of which the votes of the company at large were taken by a regular ballot, and the dividend previouſly voted was approved and ratified by a large majority. To the validity of the act of the 6th of May no objection could be ſupported, though attempted. It was clearly a valid act; and, if not valid, the bill to reſcind it would be unneceſſary, for the act of itſelf would be void.

7thly, Becauſe every argument uſed to ſhew the impropriety of dividing twelve one-half applies with equal force to a dividend of ten *per cent.* which the bill allows, and indeed to any dividend at all; and would, if admitted to be a proper ground for reſcinding this dividend, be equally ſo for reſcinding every dividend the company has ever made, or probably will ever make. For it is hardly poſſible, that during the exiſtence of the company, their debts can be actually paid off, or their caſh in hand ſuffice to diſcharge thoſe debts, and pay a dividend; and at the ſame time the trade be carried on to that extent, as will yield to the company and the public the moſt ample returns. The whole argument in favour of the bill being reduced to theſe two propoſitions, that the company ought to diſcharge its debts before a dividend can be allowed to take place; and that a dividend ought to be made upon a caſh account; principles contradicted by the uniform practice of the company from its commencement.

8thly, Becauſe this bill cannot be meant for the intereſts of either the company's creditors, or of the proprietors; for it is obſervable that the latter, as far as they may be ſuppoſed to underſtand, and may be permitted to judge of their own intereſts, entertain, and have ſtrenuouſly expreſſed a very

different ſenſe of that matter. And as to the creditors, it is remarkable, that none of them appear to have called for their money, nor have any of them, by any petition to this houſe, or otherwiſe, made any complaint, or ſignified any deſire of ſuch an interpoſition in their favour. On the contrary, it appeared on evidence, from the croſs-examination of the principal witneſs for the bill, that ſo far from doubting of the ſufficiency of the ſecurity, the greateſt evil the company's bond creditors apprehend, is, the being paid off; and that their bonds, which ſome time ſince bore an high premium, though they carry only three *per cent.* bear at preſent a premium conſiderably lower, merely from that apprehenſion.

9thly, Becauſe a legiſlative interpoſition controuling the dividend of a trading company, legally voted and declared by thoſe to whom the power of doing it is intruſted, and to whom there is no ground to impute an abuſe of that power, and who lent their money to the public upon the expreſs ſtipulation that they might exerciſe their diſcretion with regard to the dividends, provided their effects, undivided, were ſufficient to anſwer their debts; is altogether without example. And as it tends to leſſen the idea of that ſecurity and independance of the power of the ſtate, which have induced all Europe to depoſit their money in the funds of Great Britain, the precedent may be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences to public credit.

10thly, Becauſe, if a bill reſtraining the future dividend of the company were proper, as has been argued, upon any ideas of fixing and preventing a fluctuatio in the price of its ſtock, that end requires only, that the dividend ſhould be fixed, without any regard to the quantum of it, and may be as well attained by a dividend of twelve one-half as of ten *per cent.* and conſequently affords no argument for the retroſpective part of this bill, or for fixing the future dividend below the value of the ſtock. But this is in truth ſo far from being the real object of any part of the preſent bill, that the ſhort period to which the reſtriction is confined, cannot but increaſe, inſtead of preventing that fluctuation, and encourage, inſtead of checking, the infamous practices of the alley. The paſſions of men will be warmly agitated during the ſummer, in ſpeculating on the probability of this reſtriction being ſuffered to expire at the opening of the next ſeſſion of parliament, or being continued further. The ignorant and unwary are ſure to be the dupes of thoſe who have the good luck to be in the ſecret, and are wicked enough to employ it to their own advantage. But the propoſal made by the company, of ſubmitting to a reſtriction of dividend at the rate of twelve one-half *per cent.* and extending that reſtriction during the temporary agreement, would have obviated all thoſe miſchiefs, and ſecured every good end which may have been propoſed, but cannot be attained by this bill; and as ſuch reſtriction, with their conſent would have been liable to no objections of injuſtice or violence.

11th, Becauſe, if at the opening of the next ſeſſion of parliament, the reſtriction is permitted to expire,

pire, the whole effect of the bill, except the miſchiefs it may produce, will be the keeping back for four or five months, from the pockets of thoſe to whom it belongs, a ſum of 40,000l. the difference between the dividend the company wiſhes, and that which it is allowed to make by the bill; this ſum is ridiculouſly diſproportioned to any real purpoſe of paying off and reducing the company's debts; but if, on the other hand, the reſtriction is then to be continued, and the parliament henceforward to regulate the dividends of the company, and the whole of their affairs for that purpoſe is to be from time to time laid open to public examination, it is not difficult to foreſee the ruinous conſequences to the company; and as the precedent will go to the ſubjecting every other company to the ſame ſort of controul, the ſpeedy diſſolution of them all will be perhaps the happieſt event the public can wiſh, that they may not become ſo many engines of power and influence, the conſequences of which it is eaſy to conceive, and unneceſſary to deſcribe.

12th, Becauſe, the arguments in favour of this limitation, drawn from a ſuppoſition, that the company had exceeded their legal power of borrowing on their bonds, appears to us to be neither well founded nor concluſive; it appears on the plain and expreſs words of the engrafting act, that they had a power thereby to borrow five millions; ſo they have always underſtood; and ſo parliament underſtood and declared in a ſubſequent act; and we cannot comprehend the juſtice, the policy, or the decorum, of cavilling at this particular time, at the exerciſe of a power publicly exerted, and which has come frequently within the cognizance, without incurring the cenſure of parliament; and as this doubt never was ſtarted before, the objection ſeems to ariſe not from the company's having exceeded their power of borrowing upon bond, but from the neceſſity of ſuch a ſuppoſition, in order to find a pretence, however inſufficient, for this limitation.

13th, Becauſe the inability of the company, to make the dividends reſcinded by this bill, has been argued, on a ſuppoſition that the right to the territorial acquiſitions of the company in the Eaſt-Indies, is not in that company, but in the public; which method of arguing, if admitted as one of the grounds of the bill, we conceive to be inconcluſive as to the ſubject matter, and highly dangerous as to the precedent; for the company being in poſſeſſion, and no claim againſt them being ſo much as made, much leſs eſtabliſhed, we hold it highly dangerous to the property of the ſubject, and extremely unbecoming the juſtice and dignity of this houſe, by extrajudicial opinions, to call into queſtion the legality of ſuch a poſſeſſion, and to act without hearing, as if the houſe had decided againſt it.

14th, Becauſe, the forms of proceeding upon this bill have been contrary to precedent, inaſmuch as it appears by our journals, that whenever a bill, judicial in its nature, as affecting legal rights and private property, has come up from the commons, ſtating no facts, as a ground for that bill, or ſtating facts, the evidence of which

does not appear in the preamble, the invariable practice of this houſe has been to deſire a conference with the other, in order to be informed either of the facts, or the evidence to ſupport ſuch facts (if alledged) on which the bill was originally framed; and the commons have on like occaſions done the ſame by this houſe: inſtances of this mutual application from one houſe to the other, appear in the following caſes, viz. Mr. Duncomb's caſe, March 1697, Directors of the South-Sea company, Aiſlabie and Craggs, July 1721. Sir Thomas Cooke's caſe, 1695. Caſes of Kelly, Plunket, and biſhop of Rocheſter, March 1722. Bambridge's caſe, April 1729. Robinſon and Thomſon's caſe, March 1731. Sale of Lord Derwentwater's eſtates, &c. 1732. Caſe of Sir Robert Sutton, and others, March 1732. Caſe of Al. Wilſon and the city of Edinburgh, May 1737.

15th, Becauſe, in the proceedings on this bill, no council was appointed in ſupport of the bill, to ſtate the grounds, to examine the witneſſes, and methodize the evidence: for want of which the lords themſelves were obliged to call and examine witneſſes, and appear more like parties than judges.

16th, Becauſe, alſo in the proceedings on this bill, when lords, who declared themſelves patrons and friends to the bill, had examined two witneſſes, and ſaid, they were ſatisfied with their examination, other lords were not permitted to call in any other witneſſes, before the council for the Eaſt India company, againſt this bill, were ordered to proceed. It was even denied to lords, to bring again to the bar the two gentlemen who had been examined, (Mr. Rous, and Mr. Saunders, the chairman, and deputy chairman of the company,) although by the arrival of the ſhip Cruttenden from Bengal, after their examination, which brought a new and very particular account of the flouriſhing ſtate of the company's affairs in India, it was very poſſible thoſe gentlemen might have changed their opinion; their former evidence having been merely matter of opinion reſulting from ſuch information as they were at that time poſſeſſed of: witneſſes were diſmiſſed unexamined, whom ſeveral lords wiſhed to have been heard, and the bill was paſſed, without waiting for the return of an account, declared by Mr. Rous to be ſuch, that without it no judgment of the preſent ſtate of the affairs of the company could be formed, and which had been ordered by the houſe; and, as the officers informed the houſe, might have been prepared in a few days. In this manner this bill has paſſed, which we are apprehenſive may be found in its conſequences very injurious to private property, and alarming to public credit.

Winchelſea and Nottingham,
Scarborough,
Temple,
Trevor,
Forteſcue,
Richmond,
Dudley and Ward,
King,
Weymouth,
Gower,
Fred. Exon,
Portland,
Sondes
Dorſet,
Rockingham,
Albemarle,
Eglintoune,
Abergaveny,
Ponſonby.

Tranſ-

Tranſlation of his Catholic majeſty's ordinance for the baniſhment of the Jeſuits.

PRAGMATIC SANCTION

Of his majeſty, with force of law,

For the baniſhment from theſe kingdoms of the regulars of the company; for the ſeizure of their temporalities, and the prohibition for ever of their re-eſtabliſhment; with the other precautions therein expreſſed.

In the year [The arms of Spain.] 1767.

In MADRID:

At the royal printing office of the Gazette.

DON CARLOS, by the grace of God, King of Caſtile, Aragon and the two Sicilies; of Jeruſalem, Granada and Toledo; of Valencia, Galicia and Majorca; of Seville, Sardinia and Corſica; of Murcia, Jaen and the Algarves; of Algezira, Gibraltar, and the Canary iſlands; of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, iſlands and continent of the ocean; Archduke of Auſtria, Duke of Burgundy, Brabant and Milan; Count of Apſburg, Flanders, Tirol, and Barcelona; Lord of Biſcay, and Molina, &c.——To the moſt ſerene prince Don Carlos, my dear and well-beloved ſon; to the infantos, prelates, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, men of ſubſtance, priors of orders, commendatories and ſub-commendatories, commanding officers of garriſons, priſons and other places; and to the preſident and others of my council, auditors of my ſeveral audiences, mayors and other officers of my houſhold, court and chanceries; and to all peace officers, ſuperiors, aſſiſtants, governors intendants major and ordinary, and to all other judges and magiſtrates whatever of theſe my kingdoms, whether their juriſdiction be royal, fœdal, abbatial and holding of certain orders, and whatever be their ſtate, condition, quality or pre-eminence, as well thoſe who now are, as thoſe who ſhall be hereafter, and to all and every one of you:

KNOW YE, that, in conformity with the opinion of my royal council extraordinary, aſſembled in conſequence of the former occurrences of the 29th of laſt January, and of what has been expoſed to me by perſons of the moſt eminent character and known experience, all agreeing in the ſame ſentiment: moved by conſiderations of the moſt weighty kind, relative to the duty incumbent on me of keeping my people in due ſubordination, tranquillity and juſtice, and by other urgent, juſt and neceſſary cauſes, which I reſerve within my own royal breaſt: Making uſe of that ſupreme, œconomic authority which the Almighty has lodged in my hands for the protection of my ſubjects, and maintenance of the reſpect due to my crown, I have come to the reſolution of ordering to be baniſhed out of all my dominions of Spain and the Indies, and of the Philippine and other adjacent iſlands, the regulars of the company, as well prieſts as coadjutors or lay members, who have

have made their firſt profeſſion; as alſo ſuch of their novices as ſhall be diſpoſed to follow them; and that all the temporalities of the company in my dominions be ſeized: and, for the uniform execution thereof throughout the ſame, I have, by another royal decree of mine of the 27th of February, given full and excluſive commiſſion and authority to Count Aranda, preſident of my council, with power to proceed forthwith to take ſuch meaſures as may be adequate thereto.

I. And, in like manner, I have come to the reſolution of ordering my counſel to make my aforeſaid royal determination known through all theſe kingdoms; acquainting all the other religious orders with the ſhare they deſervedly poſſeſs in my confidence, ſatisfaction and eſteem, on account of their fidelity and doctrine, of their compliance with their monaſtic inſtitutes, of their exemplary ſervices done to the church, of their commendable attention to ſtudy, of their ſufficiency in point of the numbers of their individuals, towards aſſiſting the biſhops and parochial paſtors in the ſpiritual nutriment of ſouls; as alſo of their forbearing to meddle with government affairs, as matters quite foreign to, and wide of, a retired and religious life.

II. I have alſo ſignified to the reverend dioceſan prelates, eccleſiaſtical communities and chapters, and other eſtabliſhments, and bodies politic of the kingdom, that the weighty motives, which, to my great regret, have compelled me to take this neceſſary meaſure, are reſerved within my royal mind: barely making uſe of my œconomic power, without proceeding to other ſteps; following in this the bent of my royal clemency, as father and protector of my people.

III. I declare, that, in the ſeizure of the company's temporalities, are compriſed their goods and chattels, as well moveable as immoveable, or eccleſiaſtic revenues, which they are legitimately poſſeſſed of in the kingdom, without prejudice to the encumbrances thereon, to the will of founders, or to the alimentary life-annuities of its individuals, which ſhall be of 100 perſons during life to the prieſts, and 90 to the lay members, to be paid out of the general ſtock formed of the company's effects.

IV. In theſe alimentary annuities are not to be compriſed any foreign Jeſuits who have no lawful exiſtence in my dominions, either within their colleges, or without them, or in private houſes, dreſſed in the tunic or garb of abbots, and whatever be the office they are employed in; all ſuch being required to quit my dominions, without any diſtinction.

V. Neither are novices to be comprehended in the alimentary proviſions, who, of their own accord, ſhall chuſe to follow the reſt, as being under no ties of profeſſion to follow them, but at perfect liberty to ſeparate from them.

VI. I declare, that if any Jeſuit quit the territory of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate whereunto they are all tranſported, or give the court any juſt motive of reſentment by his actions or writings, the penſion aſſigned him ſhall thence-

thenceforth ceaſe. And though I am not to preſume, that the body of the company will, in violation of the ſtricteſt and higheſt duties, cauſe or permit any of its individuals to write any thing contrary to the reſpect and ſubmiſſion due to my reſolution, under title or pretext of apologies, or juſtifications, tending to diſturb the peace of my kingdoms; or contribute to that purpoſe through their private emiſſaries; nevertheleſs, in that unexpected caſe, the penſion to all ſhall ceaſe.

VII. Every ſix months, one half the annual penſion allotted to the Jeſuits ſhall be paid them out of the bank del Giro, through the channel of my miniſter in Rome, who ſhall take particular care to inform himſelf of ſuch as die, or forfeit their penſion through their own fault, that the amount may be deducted.

VIII. Concerning the adminiſtration and equivalent applications of the company's effects to pious uſes, ſuch as the endowment of poor pariſhes, of incorporated ſeminaries, houſes of charity and other compaſſionate inſtitutes, after firſt conſulting the opinion of the eccleſiaſtical ordinaries, in what may be neceſſary and meet; I reſerve ſeparately to myſelf the taking ſuch meaſures, as that true piety may not be anywiſe defrauded, nor any injury done to the public good, or to private property.

IX. I prohibit and enact, as a general law and regulation, that no individual of the company in particular, or any in a body of community, be ever henceforth capable of being re-admitted into all or any of my kingdoms, under any pretext or colour whatſoever; nor ſhall my council, or any other tribunal, admit of any application for that purpoſe; on the contrary, the magiſtrates, by way of prevention, ſhall exert the moſt rigorous meaſures againſt all refractory abettors and co-operators of the like intent, puniſhing them as diſturbers of the public peace.

X. No one of the actual profeſſed Jeſuits, though he ſhould quit the order with the pope's formal licence, and become a ſecular prieſt, or clerk, or paſs into any other order, ſhall ever be qualified to return again into theſe kingdoms, without obtaining my ſpecial permiſſion.

XI. In caſe of his obtaining it, which will be granted on proper informations had, he ſhall be obliged to take an oath of allegiance in the hands of the preſident of my council; faithfully promiſing never to communicate, in public or private, with the members or general of the company, nor to uſe any means, ſteps, or inſinuations, directly or indirectly, in the company's favour, on pain of being dealt with as a ſtate criminal; and the privileged * proofs ſhall be in full force againſt him.

XII. Nor ſhall he be qualified to teach, preach, or confeſs in theſe kingdoms, though, as has been ſaid, he may have quitted the order, and thrown off obedience to its general: he may, how-

* Concurrent circumſtances; or one living witneſs.

ever,

ever, enjoy eccleſiaſtical livings, to which no ſuch offices are annexed.

XIII. No one of my ſubjects, though a ſecular or regular clergyman, ſhall aſk any letter of ſodality of the general of the company, or of any one elſe in his name, on pain of being dealt with as a ſtate criminal; and the privileged proofs ſhall equally be in force againſt him.

XIV. All ſuch as actually have them ſhall be obliged to ſurrender them to the preſident of my council, or to the juſtices and magiſtrates of the kingdom, to be tranſmitted and placed among the records; and no farther uſe be made of them for the future, without their paſt poſſeſſion thereof being hurtful to them, provided they punctually make the ſaid ſurrender; and the magiſtrates ſhall ſecrete the names of thoſe who deliver them up, that thus they may occaſion them no infamy.

XV. Whoever ſhall hold correſpondence with Jeſuits, it being generally and abſolutely forbidden, ſhall be puniſhed in proportion to his guilt.

XVI. I expreſly forbid that any body do write, declaim, or make any ſtir, on pretext of theſe meaſures, either for or againſt them: on the contrary, I enjoin ſilence in this matter to all my ſubjects: and I ordain, that the violators thereof be puniſhed as guilty of high treaſon.

XVII. To prevent all diſputes and miſunderſtandings between private perſons, to whom it belongs not to judge, or to interpret the ſovereign's commands, I expreſsly ordain, that nobody do write, print, or employ papers, or works, touching the expulſion of the Jeſuits out of my dominions, without having the government's eſpecial leave: and I forbid the judge of the preſs, his ſubdelegates, and all the magiſtrates of my kingdoms, to grant ſuch leave: all which are to be wholly under the controul of the preſident and miniſters of my council, with the knowledge of my attorney-general.

XVIII. I moſt ſtrictly charge the right reverend dioceſan prelates and ſuperiors or regular orders, that they do not ſuffer their ſubjects to write, print or declaim upon this ſubject, inaſmuch as they would be made reſponſible for the unſuſpected breach on the part of any of them: which I declare to be compriſed in the law of the king Don John I. and in the royal ſchedula circularly put forth by my council on the 18th of September of laſt year, in order to the more punctual execution thereof to which all are bound to contribute; for that it concerns the good order of the public, and the credit of its ſeveral individuals, to avoid drawing upon themſelves the effects of my royal diſpleaſure.

XIX. I order my council, in conformity with what is here before expreſſed, to diſpatch and publiſh the moſt ſtrict and proper royal pragmatic, that it may reach to the knowledge of all my ſubjects; and that for the punctual, ſpeedy and invariable accompliſhment thereof, the juſtices and territorial tribunals, do inviolably obſerve, publiſh and execute the puniſhments above declared againſt all thoſe

thoſe who ſhall commit any breach of thoſe diſpoſitions; and that they do for this purpoſe give all neceſſary orders, with preference to every other buſineſs whatever, inaſmuch as it concerns my royal ſervice: for the ampler knowledge of which, I have ordered copies of my royal decree to be tranſmitted to the councils of the Inquiſition, of the Indies, of the orders and of the revenue, for their reſpective intelligence and accompliſhment thereof. And for the full and invariable obſervance of it, the royal decree of the 27th of March, containing the foregoing reſolution, which was ordered to be kept and fulfilled according to its expreſs tenor, having been publiſhed this day in full council, it was agreed to diſpatch the preſent in force of law and pragmatic ſanction, as if it were made and promulgated in aſſemblies of the ſtates; therefore it is my will that this be and paſs for ſuch, without oppoſition of any kind whatſoever: to which end, ſo far as may be neceſſary, I abrogate and annul all things which are or may be contrary to the ſame. Wherefore I charge the right reverend the archbiſhops, biſhops, ſuperiors of regular orders, mendicant and monacal viſitors, vicars and other prelates and eccleſiaſtical judges of theſe my kingdoms, that they obſerve the above expreſſed law and pragmatic ſanction according to its tenor, without permitting any infraction thereof under any pretence, or in any manner whatſoever. And I command thoſe of my council, the preſident and auditors, officers of my houſehold and court, of my other audiences and chanceries, aſſiſtant governors, ſerjeants major and ordinary, and other judges and juſtices of all my dominions, that they do keep, fulfil and execute the aforeſaid law and pragmatic ſanction, and cauſe it to be kept and obſerved in all and every particular, taking for that purpoſe all the meaſures requiſite, without need of any farther declaration than the preſent, which is to have its punctual execution, from the day of its publication in Madrid, and in the other cities, towns and villages of theſe my kingdoms, in the uſual manner: it ſo behoving for my royal ſervice, and the tranquillity, good and benefit of the public weal of my ſubjects: for ſuch is my pleaſure; and that the printed copy of this my letter, ſigned by Don Ignatius Stephen de Higareda, ſenior clerk of my chamber, and of the management of my council, ſhall bear the ſame credit as the original.

Given at Pardo, the ſecond of April, One thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty and ſeven years.

I the KING.

I Don Joſeph Ignacio de Goyeneche, ſecretary to our lord the king, cauſed it to be written out, by his command.

The count of Aranda,
Don Franciſco Cepeda,
Don Jacinto de Todo,
Don Franciſco de Salazar y Agnero,
Don Joſeph Manuel Domingues,
Regiſtrada,
Don Nicolas Berdugo, lieutenant of the High Chancellor,
D. Nicolas Berdugo.

PUBLICATION.

IN the town of Madrid on the ſecond day of the month of April, of

of one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty and ſeven years, before the gates of the royal palace, facing the principal balcony of our lord the king, and at the gate of Guadalajara, where the public buſineſs of merchants and tradeſmen is carried on in the preſence of Don John Stephen de Salaverri, D. John Antony de Pennaredonda, D. Benedict Antony de Barreda, D. Peter Ximenez de Meſa, mayors of the houſhold and court of his majeſty, the foregoing royal pragmatic ſanction was publiſhed with ſound of trumpets and kettle-drums, by the voice of the public crier, attended by ſeveral of the officers of the ſaid houſhold and court, and many other perſons ſtanding by; which J. D. Francis Lopez Navamuel, one of the ſenior clerks of the chamber to our lord the king, and of thoſe who aſſiſt in his council, do certify.

Don Franciſco Lopez Navamuel.

I certify that this is a true copy of the original royal pragmatic ſanction, and its publication.

D. Ignatius Stephen de Higareda.

An authentic narrative of the many horrid cruelties inflicted by Elizabeth Brownrigg, upon her poor apprentice girls; for which ſhe received ſentence of death, on Saturday the 12th of September, and was executed on Monday the 14th at Tyburn.

ELizabeth Brownrigg, about 20 years ago, being then about 27 years of age, lived as a ſervant in the family of Mr. R——, in Preſcot-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields: and about this time James Brownrigg, who had ſerved his time to a plaiſterer and painter in the ſame neighbourhood, married her.

Soon afterwards they ſettled at Greenwich in Kent, where he carried on the buſineſs of a painter, and after about five years they removed to London.

Their family increaſed very faſt, for they have had 16 children, of whom three ſons only are now living. Mrs. Brownrigg therefore learnt midwifry under Dr. K——, and about two years ago, was, by the overſeers of the pariſh of St. Dunſtan in the Weſt, appointed to act as midwife to the poor women in the workhouſe, in which capacity ſhe is ſaid to have acted with great ſkill and humanity. She was alſo a faithful wife, and a tender and affectionate parent.

It appears to be about four years ſince Brownrigg took the houſe in Fetter-lane, where the cruelties were committed; at this time he kept a horſe, and had a lodging at Mr. Norton's over-againſt Cannonbury-lane, Iſlington.

In the month of February 1765, Mary Mitchel, a poor girl of the precinct of White Friars, was bound an apprentice to Brownrigg, by the overſeers, and was then about 14 years of age.

About three months afterwards, on the 15th of May, Mary Jones was alſo bound apprentice to Brownrigg, by the governors of the Foundling Hoſpital, being alſo about the age of fourteen.

It appears that theſe poor girls were at this time treated with great cruelty; what in particular were Mitchell's ſufferings does not appear, but the ſufferings of Jones were very great: Mrs. Brownrigg uſed to lay down two chairs on the

the kitchen floor, in ſuch a manner that the ſeat of one might ſupport the back of the other; and then faſtening the girl down, ſometimes naked, and ſometimes with her coats pulled over her head, ſhe uſed to whip her till her ſtrength was exhauſted: at other times, when the girl has been waſhing the rooms or ſtairs, her miſtreſs has found fault with her work, and taking her up in her arms, has repeatedly plunged her head in the pail of water that ſtood by.

By ſuch treatment the girl received many hurts in different parts of her body, particularly in the head and ſhoulders, from the edges and bale of the pail; and was beſides kept in continual terror by threats of drowning, her miſtreſs often calling on Mary Mitchell to fill her a tub of water for that purpoſe.

Where Mitchell ſlept at this time we are not told, but Jones ſlept in a hole under a dreſſer, in the ſame room with Brownrigg and his wife, and facing the feet of their bed; this room was even with the ſhop, the door of which opened into the ſtreet; and one Sunday morning, as ſhe lay ſilently deploring her miſerable condition, and ready to die by the conſequences of her paſt ſufferings, and apprehenſions of future, ſhe caſt her eye upon the key of the ſhop-door, which hung againſt a poſt, and perceiving that her maſter and miſtreſs were both faſt aſleep, ſhe had reſolution to make one effort for liberty and life, and riſing very ſoftly, ſhe was fortunate enough to ſteal into the ſtreet without diſcovery.

This happened after ſhe had been bound about two months, in July, when the days were long, and it was probably very early in the morning. When ſhe got into the ſtreet, ſhe was at a loſs where to go: ſhe had no home but the Foundling Hoſpital, and thither ſhe did not know her way: however, ſhe aſked of every one ſhe met and, at laſt, of a man who was ſo kind as to conduct her to the gate.

She was inſtantly admitted, and having told her ſtory, and ſhewed her wounds and bruiſes, one of which was upon her eye, and had ſo injured it, that for ſome days it was feared ſhe would have loſt it; the following order was made by the governors.

"That Mr. Plumptree, the hoſpital ſolicitor, do write to James Brownrigg, a painter in Fetterlane, who had a child, Mary Jones, apprenticed to him by this corporation, and acquaint him, that if he does not forthwith make ſatisfaction for the abuſe to the ſaid child, this corporation will proſecute him with the utmoſt ſeverity."

What particular ſteps were taken by the parties in conſequence of this order does not appear; but ſoon after Browrigg was ſummoned to attend the chamberlain of London, before whom the matter was ſettled, and the girl diſcharged from her apprenticeſhip.

Mitchell was now left alone, and continued patiently to drudge and to ſuffer till a about the middle of February following, when ſhe had ſerved about one year of her time; and then ſhe alſo found means to run away; ſhe was however

ever found in the ſtreets by Brownrigg's youngeſt boy the ſame day, and brought back to her confinement: from this time ſhe was never ſuffered to ſtir out of doors, and ſhe was frequently tied up and whipped naked.

About the ſame time Mary Clifford, a third apprentice, was bound to James Brownrigg, by the overſeers of White Friar's precinct; ſhe was a month upon liking, and during that time was well treated, and ate and drank as the family did, but ſoon after ſhe was bound they began to uſe her with great cruelty, frequently beating her over the head and ſhoulders, ſometimes with a walking-cane, ſometimes with a horſe-whip, and ſeveral times with a hearth bruſh.

It was this girl's misfortune, either by natural weakneſs or bad nurſing, to wet the bed; for this reaſon ſhe was ordered to lie on a mat, in a place called a cellar, which had been a coal hole, and is deſcribed as a cold dark place, about as big as a cloſet, under the ſtairs; the mat after ſome time was taken away, and a ſack, with a little ſtraw in it, ſubſtituted in its place: ſometimes there was nothing but a few rags, and ſometimes only the bare floor; as to covering, ſhe had ſometimes her own cloaths, ſometimes a bit of blanket, and ſometimes ſhe was quite naked: it does not appear that ſhe had any other food than bread and water, and ſhe had not enough even of that.

Once when ſhe was famiſhing for hunger, ſhe broke open a cupboard where victuals were uſually kept, but found none; and once, when ſhe was fainting with thirſt, ſhe broke down ſome boards to come at water. For the firſt of theſe crimes ſhe was made to ſtrip naked and continued to waſh naked a whole day, being every now and then beaten with the ſtump end of a riding whip; for the other offence a jack-chain was put round her neck, and the end faſtened to the yard door; it was ſtrained as tight as it could be, without choaking her; and when ſhe had paſſed the day in this condition, ſhe was ſent down into the cellar when it grew dark, with the chain ſtill on her neck, and her hands tied behind her, to paſs the night, without bed or covering in the cellar.

It was common for both the girls, Mitchell and Clifford to go about the houſe quite naked; for Brownrigg being by their indentures obliged to find them cloaths, uſed frequently to order them to be taken off, upon diſcovering any little rent, hole, or other ſign that they were wearing out. Mitchell, in particular, ſcarce ever wore ſtockings, and had generally nothing upon her body but an old rag of a waiſtcoat, which did not cover her behind.

As the priſoners were tried for the murder of Clifford, and Mitchell was the principal evidence, little appears concerning Mitchell in particular; ſometimes however ſhe was locked with Clifford into the cellar, to paſs the night, and both were conſtantly left locked into that diſmal cell, from Saturday to Sunday night, while the family were at their country lodgings in Iſlington: during all this time they had no ſuſtenance but a piece of bread, for water itſelf was not added.

The office of gaoler ſeems in general to have been performed by the eldeſt ſon, though ſometimes the priſoners were locked up by others; once in particular, by one Benham, an apprentice boy, who in his examination ſwears, that when he locked them in, Clifford was quite naked.

They were ſo often and ſo cruelly whipped and beaten, that their bodies, eſpecially their heads and ſhoulders, were almoſt one intire ſcab, the ſkin being broken afreſh as faſt as it healed, for the miſtreſs never left off whipping till ſhe drew blood.

In order to inflict this diabolical puniſhment, the firſt expedient was to ſtrip them quite naked, and then tie their hands up to a water pipe, that was carried along the kitchen ceiling; this pipe however at laſt giving way, a ſtaple was by the huſband, at the wife's deſire, made faſt to a beam, and the cord that tied them was put through it.

Clifford was alſo ſometimes beaten with great cruelty by John: he one day ordered her to put up a bed, which ſhe attempted to do, but was not able, upon which he beat her with the buckle end of a leathern belt, till ſhe was covered with blood, and then put the bed up himſelf. John alſo found her at another time naked and bleeding, having been tied up and whipped by his mother, yet in this condition ſhe ordered him to continue the whipping, becauſe ſhe was no longer able, and, ſtrange and horrid as it may ſeem, he complied,

Some acts of cruelty are alſo mentioned of another kind: Mrs. Brownrigg would frequently fix one of her hands on each of Mitchell's cheeks, and draw them down her face with ſuch force as to occaſion the blood to ſtart from her eyes.

Mitchell alſo, having complained to a lodger, the only one who appears to have been in the houſe during Clifford's time of ill uſage; the woman, upon ſome diſagreement with the miſtreſs, reproached her with the ſubject of the girl's complaint; upon which Mrs. Brownrigg ran to the girl, and thruſting a pair of ſciſſors into her mouth, cut her tongue in two places.

The account of what happened on the day when the fatal wound was given, is in ſubſtance as follows.

On Friday the 30th of July, about ten o'clock in the morning, Brownrigg having threatened the girls all the week, went down into the kitchen, and tied Mary Clifford naked up to a ſtaple; her head and ſhoulders were then ſore, and ſcabbed over in many places, but notwithſtanding the ſtate of her body, her tyrant whipped her with a horſewhip, in the preſence of Mitchell, till the blood followed the ſtroke; ſhe was then let down, and ordered to waſh, naked and wounded as ſhe was, and while ſhe was ſtooping down to the tub, her miſtreſs ſtruck her over the head with the but end of the whip.

She was tied up five ſucceſſive times in this dreadful day, ſtill naked and bleeding, and ſtill covered with new wounds by the whip.

She was now mortally wounded, yet ſhe crept about till the 4th of Auguſt, when ſhe was diſcovered in the following manner.

Clifford's father about four years ago married a ſecond wife; he went away however and left her, upon which ſhe delivered up the child to the pariſh, and went into Cambridgeſhire. She was abſent when the girl was bound apprentice, but returned about laſt Midſummer; having learnt to whom the girl was apprenticed, ſhe went twice to Brownrigg's and enquired for her, but was both times anſwered by the apprentice boy that no ſuch perſon lived there.

After ſeveral other ineffectual enquiries, both by herſelf and perſons whom ſhe ſent, Brownrigg, the huſband, abſolutely denying that any ſuch perſon was in the houſe, threatened the woman to ſend her before the lord mayor, for being troubleſome.

Upon this ſhe went away; but as ſhe was going from the houſe, Mrs. Deacon, the wife of a baker that lived next door, having heard high words, called her in, and enquired what was the matter; upon hearing the ſtory, Mrs. Deacon told her, that her family had frequently heard groans and moanings in Brownrigg's houſe; that ſhe ſuſpected there were apprentices who were cruelly treated, and that ſhe would do her utmoſt to make farther diſcoveries; taking a direction to find Clifford's mother if any diſcovery ſhould be made.

About this time, Brownrigg, the huſband, having been concerned in a ſale at Hampſtead, bought a hog, and had it driven home to his houſe. This hog was kept in a covered yard, where there was a ſky-light, and this it was found neceſſary to open, in order to let out the ſmell which proceeded from keeping the hog in ſo cloſe a place. The removal of the ſky-light gave Mr. Deacon's family an opportunity of ſeeing what paſſed in Brownrigg's yard; and, they being upon the watch, it happened that the apprentice, William Clipſon, being on the 3d of Auguſt at a two pair of ſtairs window which looked down on the ſky-light, ſaw Mary Clifford, her head, back, and ſhoulders being uncovered, bloody, and cut in a ſhocking manner. Clipſon then went down to the one pair of ſtairs window, and crawled out of it upon the leads over the yard, and laying himſelf acroſs the ſky-light, had a fuller view of the poor dying wretch: he ſpoke ſeveral times, but received no anſwer: he then to attract her notice threw down two or three pieces of mortar, one of which falling upon her head, ſhe looked up, and attempted to ſpeak, but was able only to utter a groan. This was overheard by Mrs. Brownrigg, but without pity; for Clipſon ſays, ſhe ſpoke to her in a ſharp manner, and aſked what was the matter with her.

The poor girl then drew back out of ſight, and Clipſon acquainted the family with what he had ſeen.

Intelligence was ſoon ſent to the mother-in-law, who on the next day, Friday the fourth of Auguſt, came with the overſeers, and went into Brownrigg's houſe, and Clipſon with them. They enquired for Mary Clifford, and Brownrigg, the huſband, told them, ſhe was in Hertfordſhire, attending one of the children who had the hooping cough. Clipſon then ſaid, he had

had ſeen her in a deplorable condition the day before: upon which Brownrigg ſwore by God ſhe was not in the houſe; after ſome altercation he produced Mary Mitchell, and again ſwore there was no other girl in the houſe. Clipſon inſiſted Mitchell was not the girl he had ſeen; and Mr. Grundy, one of the overſeers, then ſent for a conſtable, and ſearched the houſe, but without ſucceſs.

Upon examining Mitchell, the girl that was produced, her cap was found to be bloody, her head wounded in many places, and her ſhoulders covered with the ſcabs of wounds that were healing. Mr. Grundy perceiving how this girl had been treated, carried her away to the workhouſe, wholly regardleſs of Brownrigg's bluſtering, who ſaid ſhe was his apprentice, and bid him remove her at his peril.

When they came to take off her leather boddice, for ſhe had no ſhift, it ſtuck ſo faſt to the wounds, that the ſkin and eſchar came away with them; when they were off, and ſhe was aſſured ſhe ſhould return to her tormentors no more, ſhe began to give an account of her ſufferings, and declared that Clifford was in the houſe, for that ſhe had parted with her juſt before ſhe was herſelf produced.

Mr. Grundy not doubting the truth of Mitchell's account, went back to Brownrigg's and telling him he would carry him before a magiſtrate on ſuſpicion of murder, ſent for a coach.

Brownrigg's neighbours came about him and offered bail, a lawyer alſo was ſent for, who endeavoured to intimidate the overſeer and conſtable; but Grundy continued ſteady in his purpoſe; he ſaid he would anſwer what he ſhould do, and that as the crime Brownrigg was taken up for was murder, no bail could be taken. Matters now took another turn; as it was before Brownrigg's intereſt to conceal the girl, that it might not appear ſhe had been ill-treated, it was now become his intereſt to produce her, that it might be known ſhe was alive. The ſon therefore, by the father's order, brought her from a cupboard under the beaufet in the dining-room, where ſhe had been hidden.

No words, ſays honeſt Wingrave in his narrative, can ſo powerfully deſcribe the ſhocking appearance which this miſerable object made, as the ſilent woe with which every perſon preſent was ſtruck, and the execrations which followed, againſt thoſe who had reduced her to that condition. Her head was ſwelled to almoſt double the natural ſize, and her neck ſo much, as that ſhe could neither ſpeak nor ſwallow; her mouth ſtood open, and the ſurgeon who examined her depoſed, that ſhe was all one wound from her head to her toes, that her ſhift ſtuck to her body, that ſhe was in a fever, and the wounds were beginning to mortify from neglect.

Brownrigg and the girls were then carried before a magiſtrate, who ſent the offender to priſon, and the ſufferers to the hoſpital. The wife and ſon had made their eſcape ſoon after the officer firſt came to the houſe.

On Sunday following, Auguſt the 9th, Mary Clifford died, and the coroner's jury brought in their verdict wilful murder, againſt James Brownrigg, the huſband, and Eli-

zabeth his wife. It appeared that the eldeſt ſon John had cruelly treated the girl, therefore he was included in an advertiſement for apprehending the mother.

About this time intelligence was given that Mrs. Brownrigg and her ſon had taken places in the Dover ſtage, by the names of Hartly, and this was found to be true, though they did not think it ſafe to undertake that journey, and therefore loſt their earneſt. It was alſo afterwards known that they had taken a hackney-coach in Jewin-ſtreet, which ſet them down in Eaſt-Smithfield, and that they took a lodging in a by ſtreet near Nightingale-lane, where they lived on bread and water, (being afraid to ſtir out to purchaſe other food,) till Tueſday the 11th. In Rag-fair they purchaſed ſome apparel, leſt the deſcription given in the advertiſement of what they wore, might produce a diſcovery. They lodged one night at a place unknown, and the next day they took a lodging at Mr. Dunbar's, who keeps a chandler's ſhop in Wandſworth.

On Saturday the 15th of Auguſt, three days after Mrs. Brownrigg and her ſon had been at Wandſworth, Mr. Dunbar met with a newſpaper wherein he read the advertiſement. From a concurrence of many circumſtances, it ſtruck him immediately that his lodgers were the perſons deſcribed, and he went to town the next day, and gave information againſt them.

Mr. Owen, the churchwarden, immediately ſent to Mr. Deacon their next door neighbour in Flower-de-luce Court, who knew them, and aſked him if he would go with the conſtable to Wandſworth, which he readily agreed to do; then Mr. Owen ſent for Mr. Wingrave; and Mr. Deacon, Dunbar and Wingrave immediately ſet out, and when they got to the houſe, Wingrave went directly to the room, and Mr. Deacon, who followed at ſome diſtance, aſſured him they were the people he wanted. They were brought to town in a coach, without the leaſt ſuſpicion who they were, and conſequently without any tumult or crowd.

The parties were many times examined, and on the 9th of Sept. bills of indictment were found againſt the father, mother, and the eldeſt ſon, for the murder of Clifford.

The trial came on upon Saturday the 12th, and laſted ſix hours; the evidence was in ſubſtance the ſame as this narrative, upon which Elizabeth was found guilty; and James the huſband, and John the ſon, acquitted: they were however detained to take their trial for a miſdemeanor.

Though theſe people lived in credit; and Mrs. Brownrigg had a watch, and ſome other trinkets which ſhe carried off with her, yet in priſon her diſtreſs was ſo great, that ſhe was obliged to borrow a few half-pence of a woman who was priſoner in the ſame room with her.

The crowd that waited in the ſeſſions houſe yard during her trial, teſtified their joy by a ſhout when ſhe was convicted; and ſuch was the indignation they felt at the horrid, deliberate, and perſevering cruelties of which ſhe had been guilty.

guilty, that thoſe who were near the ordinary's coach, when ſhe was carried to execution, cried out they hoped he would pray for her damnation, for ſuch a fiend ought not to be ſaved.

It was undoubtedly a principle of virtue that abhorred cruelty, but to preclude the mercy of the Almighty was certainly cruel, and the beſt of mankind have no ground of hope but the gracious promiſe that extends to the worſt, "All manner of ſin and blaſphemy ſhall be forgiven unto man." She was executed on Monday the 14th day of Sept. and her body was carried to Surgeons-hall to be anatomized.

It is ſcarce poſſible to quit this horrid ſubject without obſerving, that the facts which now have been demonſtrated were in the higheſt degree improbable. Who could have believed, that two wretches of the age of 15 or ſixteen years, could in ſuch a metropolis as London, and ſuch a neighbourhood as Fetter-lane, continue to ſuffer as Mitchell and Clifford ſuffered for two years, without diſcovery or eſcape, eſpecially as there was no other ſervant in the family but the apprentice boy to go on errands. Let us not then too haſtily conclude, on other occaſions, that what does not appear probable is neceſſarily falſe, nor haſtily reject every propoſition for which we cannot fully account. Let our enquiry be cool, critical, and deliberate: and as evils multiply beyond probability, let our vigilance be not only conſtant but ſcrupulous, not reſting in ſlight appearances, but puſhing on to facts.

Abſtract of the trial of William Gueſt for High treaſon, in filing, impairing, &c. the current coin of this kingdom.

JOHN Leach, a teller at the Bank, depoſed that Mr. Gueſt had been there between two and three years; that he had ſeen him pick new guineas from the old ones; that this being Mr. Gueſt's frequent practice, it had created a ſuſpicion in his (Mr. Leach's) mind, which ſuſpicions he communicated to ſome others; that on the 4th of July Mr. Gueſt paid ſome money to Richard Still, ſervant to Mr. Corner, a dyer on the Bank-ſide; that ſeeing Mr. Gueſt take ſome money out of the drawer, and put it among the reſt on the table; when he had paid the man, Mr. Leach followed him out, and begged the favour of the man to walk into the pay-office, and let him tell the money over; which he did, and, out of thirty guineas, three of them ſeemed to be newly filed; that the man ſaying this was all the gold he had about him, Mr. Leach carried the three guineas to Mr. Robert Bell, who looked at them: Mr. Leach deſired the ſaid Mr. Bell would carry them up to Mr. Race the caſhier, but did not go up with him then; that theſe guineas appeared to him, as if the right milling had been taken off, and then filed. Being aſked whether it was not common to take ſome money out of the drawer in their payments at the bank, Mr. Leach replied, that it was ſometimes, but very ſeldom, done there; but this was not the whole

of the money, but part; that it was mixed with the money upon the table; that they put their guineas in one drawer, the ſilver in another, moidores in another, and ports in another; that Mr. Race weighed the three guineas in his preſence, which together weighed fifteen penny weights, nine grains; whereas the weight ſhould have been ſixteen penny weights, four grains and a quarter, which made a difference of nineteen grains and a quarter; that is, three ſhillings and a penny according to the ſtandard; one of the guineas (a George II.) weighed five penny weights three grains and nine ſixteenths; two of his preſent majeſty wanted about ten pence, the other thirteen or fourteen pence.

Richard Still depoſed to the guineas being paid, and taken from him, in the manner above related.

Mr. Bell, a teller at the Bank, confirmed their being brought to him, and carried by him to Mr. Race; who having looked at the edges, cloſed them in a paper, wrote 4th of July on them, and then bid him carry them to Mr. Leach, and deſire him to keep them in his cuſtody, which was done.

Mr. Race, the chief caſhier, depoſed to the guineas being brought him by the laſt evidence, with his delivery of them to Mr. Bell again, who teſtifies to his own re-delivery of them to Mr. Leach, and the latter to their having been in his cuſtody ever ſince.

Mr. Thompſon, one of the caſhiers, depoſes to the manner of locking up the tellers bags every night; and that having received orders from Mr. Race to inſpect into Mr. Gueſt's bag of the 4th of July, and one or two of the tellers to be preſent with him, the bag was accordingly examined in the preſence of Mr. Lucas and Mr. Kemp, who told the money over, when the whole ſum was 1800l. 16s. 6d. in ſeveral bags; that is to ſay, thirteen bags in all; that there was one bag, in which were forty guineas which ſeemed freſher than the others upon the edges; that theſe guineas were compared and examined with caution and deliberation; ſealed up by Mr. Kemp and himſelf; not opened till that morning, and kept locked up by the two keys of the caſhier and teller.

Mr. Lucas and Mr. Kemp, both tellers in the bank, confirmed the teſtimony of the preceding witneſs, with the appearance of the forty guineas on the edges, and their deficiency in weight; which Mr. Kemp ſays, was from eight pence to fourteen pence one with the other, and that there was a deficiency in every one of them.

Mr. Sewallis, belonging to the bank, depoſes, to having ſearched the houſe of Mr. Gueſt, in July laſt: that in a two-pair of ſtairs room was a mahogany neſt of drawers, the top of which was forced open in the preſence of Mr. Hull, Mr. Humberton, and the lord mayor's officers, and there they found a vice, files, and other things.

Mr. Humberton ſwears that he is a ſervant in the bank; that he was preſent in the ſearch of Mr. Gueſt's houſe; aſked him at the bank for the keys of his book-caſe and a cupboard, telling him he was going to ſearch his houſe, there being warrants out againſt him; that Mr. Gueſt replied, he did

did not know what authority any body had to ſearch his houſe, and refuſed to deliver his keys; and that he found all the things there above depoſed, which had continued under ſeal till before the grand jury, the day before the trial came on, and that they were then under the ſeals of the grand jury. (Among theſe things was a bag with a hundred guineas, and two bags of gold filings, weighing four pounds eleven ounces and nineteen penny weights. The cheſt of drawers in which they were found, is deſcribed at large in the ſeſſions paper, and is of very curious contrivance. On the teeth of one of the files was ſome yellow ſtuff.)

Joſeph Nichols depoſed, that he is one of the moniers at the mint, where he has been employed twenty years, apprenticeſhip and all; that one of the tools produced was capable of milling money round the edges; and having looked at the three guineas paid Mr. Still, the hundred guineas, and the forty guineas, found in Mr. Gueſt's bags, ſaid they had all artificial edges, and appeared to be freſh filed, which might be done with the inſtrument before produced, and was not done at the mint at the Tower.

Mr. Chamberlaine produced three guineas, on which Mr. Nichols put edges in his preſence, with the inſtrument found in the priſoner's room, and ſaid they were quite plain before. Being compared, by Mr. Nichols, with the others found in the priſoner's drawer, the latter ſaid they were ſo near alike, that he believed them all to be done with the ſame tool.

Humberton depoſes to taking three ſmall parcels of filings out of thoſe found in Mr. Gueſt's room, and delivering them to Mr. Chamberlaine, who delivered the ſame to Mr. Lucas; which laſt again ſwears to having received, aſſayed them, and found them agreeable to the ſtandard, and thinks they might come from the filings of our guineas.

Samuel Lee, a teller at the bank, thinks it was the latter end of March the priſoner had a bar of gold, between five and ſix inches long, under two inches wide, and better than half an inch deep; that he aſked the priſoner how he came by it, who ſaid, he had it from Holland. To this Lee ſaid, he thought it was not like a regular bar of gold, it had a deal of copper on the back. Gueſt replied, it muſt be filed off, and that all bars of gold were ſo. Mr. Lee being aſked whether he had ſeen any bars of gold before, ſaid he had ſcores of times, but never any with ſuch a ſcum.

Thomas Troughton, a jeweller, depoſes to having ſold two ingots of gold for Mr. Gueſt, one about forty-eight ounces, the other about forty-ſix ounces, which appeared like bars of gold that came from abroad, and that he underſtood them as ſuch. The firſt of theſe was ſold the 12th of June laſt; the other about ſix months ago. Says they were about a foot long, and had no appearance of copper or filing.

Eſther Collins, ſervant to Mr. Gueſt, ſwears to having looked once into his book-caſe, in his abſence, when open, and to have ſeen there a glaſs cup with ſome yellow duſt in it, and by the cup was a file like that produced in court.

Priſoner, in his defence, ſaid he was innocent of the matter laid to his charge.

Robert Fratley, optical inſtrument maker; John Hunter, converſant in the mathematical and clock-way; Geo. Hodgſon, clock-maker; all for the priſoner, depoſe, that the inſtrument produced as above in court, is fit for milling many other things beſides guineas; and the ſecond ſaid it was the greateſt improvement he had ever ſeen.

Several perſons, and among them ſome of rank, appeared to Mr. Gueſt's character. Thoſe who would peruſe this trial more at large, are referred to the ſeſſions paper.

Copy of a letter of her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias, to his excellency count Wolodimer Orlow, director of the academy of ſciences at Peterſburg.

Monſ. Count Orlow,

HAVING been informed, that in the ſummer of the year 1769 the planet Venus will paſs over the ſun, I write you this letter, that you may acquaint the academy of ſciences on my part, (1) that it is my pleaſure that the academy ſhould procure the obſervations to be made with the utmoſt care; and that I deſire, in conſequence to know (2) which are the moſt advantageouſly ſituated places of the empire that the academy has deſtined for this obſervation? To the end, that in caſe it ſhall be neceſſary to erect any buildings, workmen, &c. may be ſent, and proper meaſures be taken; (3) that if there be not a ſufficient number of aſtronomers in the academy for compleating the obſervations in the places pitched upon by the academy, I propoſe, and take upon me to find out among my marine ſubjects, ſuch as, during the interval between the preſent time and the tranſit of Venus, may be perfected in the habit of obſerving under the eyes of the profeſſors, ſo as to be employed to advantage in this expedition, and to the ſatisfaction of the academy. You will Mr. Count, tranſmit me the anſwer of the academy, with its full opinion about every thing above, that I may give orders for the whole, without loſs of time.

CATHERINE.

Moſcow, 3 March, 1767.

Copy of a letter from M. Ramouſky, of the imperial academy of ſciences at Pete ſbourg, to Mr. Short of the Royal Society of London.

SIR,

I Expected your letter impatiently, and received it the $1\frac{6}{7}$th of October. We were ſomewhat in doubt as to our anſwering the views of our ſovereign, till the arrival of your letter, which diſſipated our uneaſineſs in reſpect of the inſtruments. Judge yourſelf, ſir, how ſatisfactory it was to us to underſtand that you would take upon you to procure us the neceſſary inſtruments, and, moreover, to give us your advice how to proceed ſucceſsfully in this important obſervation.

I thank you, ſir, in the name of the academy, and on my own account eſpecially, hoping a more favour-

favourable occaſion of teſtifying my obligations. At preſent, I refer to your judgment the meaſures the academy has taken with relation to the tranſit of Venus.

Purſuant to her imperial majeſty's orders, in her letter to his excellency Count Wolodimer Orloff, director of the academy, the copy whereof I herewith ſend you; the academy having repreſented, that the propereſt places in the Ruſſian empire for the obſervation of the duration of the tranſit, are Kola, and parts near it, and for the exit, the borders of the Caſpian ſea, has beſeeched her majeſty to be pleaſed to ſend two obſervers to the north, and two to the Caſpian. The ſtations named by the academy, are Kola, Solowetſkoy, Monaſtir, Aſtracan, and Orenburg. The empreſs, in accordance to the repreſentations of the academy, apprehenſive of the precarious ſtate of the weather at the end of May at Kola and thereabouts, has been pleaſed to diſtribute four other obſervers among thoſe quarters. The academy availing itſelf of the high protection her imperial majeſty has deigned to extend to this enterprize, has determined one to Jakoutſke where the duration will not be leſs than by about $2\frac{1}{2}$ leſs than at Kola, Torneaö and Cajaneburg.

Mr. Wargentin has informed me, that Mr. Mallet of Upſal is preparing for Torneaö, and Mr. Planmann for his former Cajaneburg, ſo that this country will be ſo ſecure in ſuch a multiplicity of obſervers, that it may be well hoped, that ſome ſtation or other will not fail of affording a complete obſervation of this phænomenon.

St. Peterſburg, 23 October, 1767.

A curious account of the great eruption of Mount Veſuvius, on the 19th of October 1767. Extracted from a letter wrote to a friend in England, by the honorable William Hamilton, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic majeſty to the king of the Two Sicilies.

AS I have nothing material to trouble you with at preſent, I will endeavour to give you a ſhort and exact account of the eruption, which is allowed to have been the moſt violent, though of ſhort duration, in the memory of man. I had foretold this eruption ſome time, having had opportunities from my villa to watch its motions more minutely than any one here; and thoſe threats which you read in the papers, were extracts from my letters to lord Shelburne. The 19th, at ſeven in the morning, I ſaw an unuſual ſmoak iſſue with great violence from the mouth of the volcano, and form the ſhape of a pine-tree, as Pliny deſcribed before the eruption in which his uncle periſhed; by which I knew the eruption to be at hand, and in fact before eight I ſaw the mountain open, and the lava run from the crack, near the top of the volcano; but as it took its courſe on the ſide oppoſite our villa, I had the curioſity to go round, and take a nearer view of it: at it requires time and fatigue to go up, I did not come in ſight

of

of the lava, which was running in two ſtreams down the ſide of the mountain, till eleven o'clock. I had only a peaſant of the mountain with me, and was making my remarks, when on a ſudden about mid-day the great eruption happened about a quarter of a mile from me; at firſt it was only like a fountain of liquid fire which ſprung up many feet in the air, then a torrent burſt out with a moſt horrid noiſe, and came towards us. I took off my coat to lighten myſelf, and gave it to the peaſant, and we thought proper to run three miles without ſtopping. By this time the noiſe had greatly increaſed, and the aſhes cauſed almoſt a total darkneſs, and as the earth ſhook I thought proper to retire ſtill further, and upon returning home I perceived another lava towards the Torre del Annonciata, which in leſs than two hours flowed four miles. Our villa ſhook ſo much, and the ſmell of ſulphur was ſo ſtrong, that I thought proper to return to Naples; and indeed the fright of the family was ſo great that it was impoſſible to remain at the villa.

The king's palace, though not ſo near the mountain as our villa, is ſtill within reach of lavas, there being no leſs than ſeven, one upon another, under the palace. I thought it right to acquaint the court of the impending danger, and adviſed the Marquis Tanucci to perſuade his Sicilian Majeſty to remove to Naples directly; but, for what reaſon I know not, my advice was not followed; and the conſequence was, the lava coming within a mile and a half of the palace, and the thunder of the mountain increaſing, the whole court was obliged to remove in the middle of the ſame night in the utmoſt confuſion. The exploſions of the volcano occaſioned ſo violent a concuſſion of the air, that the door of the king's room at Portici was burſt open, and one door in the palace though locked was forced open; and what is more wonderful, the like happened in many parts of Naples itſelf. The mountain for three days made this noiſe by fits, which laſted five or ſix hours each time, and then was perfectly quiet: we did not ſee the ſun clear almoſt the whole week, and the aſhes fell in quantities at Naples ſo as to cover the houſes and ſtreets an inch deep or more. 'Tis really wonderful to think of the quantity of matter that came out of the mountain in ſo ſhort a time, for on Thurſday the lavas ceaſed running, and if I had not examined them myſelf ſince, I could not have believed it: from the place where I ſaw the mountain burſt, to the point where the lava ſtopped near Portici, is to be ſure ſeven miles, and five miles of this it travelled in two hours, the very road I came down; notwithſtanding which, in ſome places the torrent is two miles broad, and the lava 40 feet high: it took its courſe through an immenſe water channel that is about 400 feet deep, and actually filled it up in ſome places. Stones of a moſt enormous ſize were thrown up from the mouth of the volcano, near a mile high, I believe, and fell at leaſt half a mile from it: in ſhort it is impoſſible to deſcribe ſo glorious and horrid a ſcene; for whilſt this was going on, Naples was crowded with proceſſions, women with their hair looſe and bare feet, full of every ſuperſtition. The priſoners killed

their gaoler, and attempted to break out. The cardinal archbiſhop's gate was burnt down, becauſe he would not bring out St. Januarius; and when he was brought out on Thurſday, a mob of an incredible number of people loaded the ſaint with abuſe for ſuffering the mountain to frighten them ſo: their expreſſions were—You are a pretty ſaint protector indeed! you yellow-faced fellow! (for the ſilver in which the ſaint's head is incaſed, is very much tarniſhed), and when the noiſe of the mountain ceaſed, they fell upon their faces, and thanked him for the miracle, and returned to the cathedral ſinging his praiſes, and telling him how handſome he was. One man's faith in the ſaint was ſo great, that at the head of the proceſſion, when he came in ſight of the mountain, he turned up his bare b—— to it, and ſaid, now kiſs it, for here comes Genariello. I am ſorry to ſay that all this is actually true; nay it would fill many ſheets was I to tell you half what I ſaw laſt week of this ſort. The mountain is now quite calm, and I believe for the preſent there is an end of this eruption, but I do not believe all the matter is yet come out. I am very glad ſo much is come out, and that Genariello did not ſtop it ſooner; for if he had, we ſhould ſurely have had an earthquake, and been demoliſhed. This laſt eruption has fully ſatisfied my curioſity, and I ſhould be as well ſatisfied if the mountain was 100 miles from this capital.

An account of the laſt honours paid to his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, at Monaco in Italy.

ON Thurſday the 17th of September 1767, as ſoon as his royal highneſs had expired, the prince of Monaco told his officers and ſervants that he muſt then acknowledge the rank of his unfortunate gueſt, by ſuch reſpect and honours as he was able in that ſituation to pay to his memory; that he had ordered a cannon to be fired every half hour till the body ſhould be depoſited on board the ſhip, and the chambre ardent to be prepared for the lying in ſtate, according to the cuſtom of that country, with his body-guard to attend, and a guard from the regiment. Accordingly the preparations were made in the largeſt apartment of the palace, hung with black; a high canopy in the middle of black and ſilver, with a repreſentation of a coffin of the ſame, upon ſix ſtages, or ſteps of black, on each of which were a row of tapers in large gold and ſilver candleſticks; on the coffin, a ſilver pillow with a coronet upon it, the ſword next on the coffin, and then the garter, george, and ſtar; on the ground, a row of torches round the whole; under the canopy, behind the ſtage, was placed the coffin, which was made as near as poſſible in the Engliſh manner, covered with the pall: on each ſide were two mutes, and behind Col. St. John, Col. Morriſon, Commodore Spry, and Mr. Schutz, attended: the whole lighting conſiſted of near 200 tapers. The proceſſion from thence to the water-ſide was fixed for Sunday at four o'clock in the afternoon, according to the order hereunto ſubjoined, and the chambre ardent was opened at nine o'clock that morning. At the ſetting out of the proceſſion, a ſignal was made for the ſhip to fire minute-guns till the body ſhould be on board;

board; as it came out of the palace, the regiment was drawn up, their drums in black, and officers with crape; at the water-ſide was the long-boat with a canopy for the body covered with black, and the royal ſtandard hoiſted half high; this was towed by the captain's barge, with the mutes in it: behind was the commodore's barge, with his royal highneſs's ſervants, and two more barges for the remaining officers. The prince of Monaco continued at the water-ſide till the whole was on board; when the royal ſtandard was hoiſted half high on board the ſhip, and the minute-guns ceaſed: the garriſon then fired two rounds of cannon, and the regiment two rounds of running fire.

Order of the proceſſion referred to above;

The Guard
Sailors with Flambeaux
All the Duke's Servants
Two Surgeons a-breaſt.
Four Mutes
Gentlemen who carry the Enſigns of the Garter
Two by two Lieutenants.

Captain Coſby Pall-Bearer		Captain Dickings Pall-Bearer
Canopy-Bearer	Sailors to ſupport the Coffin.	Canopy-Bearer
Canopy-Bearer		Canopy-Bearer
Canopy-Bearer		Canopy-Bearer
Mr. Schutz Pall-Bearer		Commodore Spry Pall-Bearer

Colonel St. John
Colonel Morriſon
The Prince of Monaco
Gentlemen his Attendants
The reſt of the Engliſh Gentlemen
two by two.

Ceremonial of the private interment of his late Royal Highneſs the Duke of York and Albany, in the royal vault in King Henry the VIIth's chapel.

AS ſoon as advice was received of the arrival of the corpſe of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York at the Nore, on the 30th of October laſt, his coffin, covered with fine crimſon velvet, with ſilver nails and handles, and the ſilver plate containing his titles, was diſpatched to the ſaid place, when the corpſe, incloſed in a leaden coffin, was taken out of a very neat wooden one, covered likewiſe with

with crimſon velvet, with ſilver lace round the borders, and put into a new one made by his majeſty's upholſterer. A beautiful urn, covered in the ſame manner as the coffin, and lined with white ſattin, was ſent down, in which the bowels of his Royal Highneſs were depoſited.

On the ſecond of November, the Mary yacht, with the corpſe of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, appeared off Woolwich, and was ſaluted minutely whilſt paſſing; about twenty minutes after ten it arrived at Greenwich, and ſoon after three was landed and put into the hearſe under a royal ſalute of the artillery. The proceſſion then began to move towards Weſtminſter. The hearſe was preceded by two coaches and ſix, beſides his highneſs's own body coach, in which were three of the lords of his bed-chamber; one of whom bore the urn with the embalmed parts of his royal highneſs's body. In which order they proceeded to the Jeruſalem chamber near the Houſe of Lords.

The ſame day the royal vault in Weſtminſter Abbey was opened, and at night his highneſs's bowels were carried into the vault, where his body was interred the evening following.

Between nine and ten on the following evening, the proceſſion began from the prince's chamber, (whither the body had been removed the night before,) paſſing through the Old Palace-yard to the ſouth-eaſt door of Weſtminſter Abbey, upon a floor railed in, covered with black cloth, and lined on each ſide with a party of the foot-guards, in the following order:

Drums and trumpets ſounding a ſolemn march, with banners attached to them, adorned with naval trophies, the drums covered with black.

The Serjeant Trumpeter.
Knight Marſhal's men.
Gentlemen, Servants to his Royal Highneſs.
Page of the Preſence.
Page of the Back Stairs.
Pages of Honour.
Mr. Frederick. Mr. Cadogan.
Equerries.
Capt. Wrotteſly. Capt. Hamilton.
Col. Morriſon.
Secretary.
Dr. Blair.
Purſuivants of Arms.
Heralds of Arms.
Treaſurer of his Royal Highneſs's Houſhold.
The Hon. Ch. Sloane Cadogan, Eſq;.

Norroy

Norroy King of Arms,
The Lord Chamberlain of his Majesty's Houshold.

The Coronet upon a black velvet cushion, borne by Clarencieux King of Arms.

Four Vice-Admirals Supporters of the Canopy, in their Uniform Coats, Black Waistcoats, & Crapes in their Hats, and on their Arms, viz.

Sir Ed. Hawke, Knight of the Bath.

D. of Bolton.

Sir Char. Saunders, Knt. of the Bath.

Fr. Geary, Esq.

Supporters of the Pall, viz.

Lord Le Despencer.

Lord Bruce.

THE BODY Covered with a Holland Sheet, and a Black Velvet Pall, adorned with Eight Escutcheons of his Royal Highness's Arms, under a Canopy of Black Velvet.

Supporters of the Pall, viz.

Lord Botetourt.

Lord Boston.

Four Vice-Admirals Supporters of the Canopy, in their Uniform Coats, Black Waistcoats, & Crapes in their Hats, and on their Arms, viz.

Tho. Frankland, Esq;

Sir Ch. Hardy, Knt.

Sir Sam. Cornish, Bart.

Sir G. Bridges Rodney Bart.

A Gentleman Usher. { Garter Principal King of Arms, with his Rod of Office. } A Gentleman Usher.

Supporter, Duke of Montagu in a black cloak. { Chief Mourner, the Duke of Grafton, in a long black cloak, his train borne by Sir Peter Dennis, Bart. } Supporter, Duke of Northumberland in a black cloak.

Assistants to the Chief Mourner,
Earl of Denbigh. ——Earl of Huntingdon.
Earl of Litchfield. ——Earl of Peterborough.
Earl Harcourt. ——Earl of Pomfret.
Earl Delawar. ——Earl of Orford.
A Gentleman Usher.
Grooms of his Royal Highness's Bedchamber,
Sir William Boothby. ——Colonel West.
Colonel St. John.
Yeomen of the Guard.

At the entrance of Westminster-Abbey, within the church, the dean and prebendaries, attended by the choir, received the body, falling into the procession next before Norroy king of arms, and so proceeded, singing, into king Henry the Seventh's chapel, where the coffin was placed on tressels, the head towards the altar, the crown and cushion being laid thereon, and the canopy held over it, while the service was read by the dean of Westminster, the chief mourner and his two supporters sitting on chairs at the head of the corpse,

corpſe, the lords aſſiſtants and ſupporters of the pall upon ſtools on either ſide.

The part of the ſervice before the interment being read, the corpſe was depoſited in the vault; and the Dean having finiſhed the burial ſervice, garter king of arms proclaimed his royal highneſs's ſtile as follows:

Thus it hath pleaſed Almighty God to take out of this tranſitory life unto his divine mercy, the late moſt high, moſt mighty, and moſt illuſtrious prince Edward Auguſtus, duke of York and Albany, earl of Ulſter, knight of the moſt noble order of the garter, ſecond ſon of the late moſt illuſtrious prince Frederick, prince of Wales, deceaſed, and next brother to his moſt excellent majeſty George the Third, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith; whom God bleſs and preſerve with long life, health, and honour, and all worldly happineſs.

Some particulars of the life of his late Royal Highneſs the Duke of York.

HIS royal highneſs Edward Auguſtus, duke of York, ſecond ſon of Frederick prince of Wales, was born March $\frac{14}{25}$, 1738-9, about four o'clock in the afternoon, and chriſtened April 11 following. The ſponſors, on that occaſion, were the king of Pruſſia, the duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, and the dutcheſs of Saxe-Weiſſenfels, repreſented, reſpectively, by Charles duke of Queenſberry and Dover, Henry marquis of Caernarvon (now duke of Chandos) and lady Charlotte Edwin. At the different ſtages of youth, he was put under preceptors qualified to inſtruct him in the various branches of literature, and the exerciſes proper for a prince of his birth; and as he was deſigned to preſide at the naval-board, the knowledge of maritime affairs formed a capital part of the plan allotted for his ſtudies. On the 18th of March, 1752, he was elected a knight companion of the moſt noble order of the garter, and inſtalled the 4th of June following.

His royal highneſs, on the 25th of July, 1758, embarked at Portſmouth, on board the Eſſex, commanded by Richard, now lord viſcount Howe, and proceeding with the fleet, was preſent at the reduction of Cherburg, in Normandy, by general Bligh. Having likewiſe ſailed in September enſuing with the ſame nobleman, when his lordſhip eſcorted the tranſports with the troops ſent out againſt St. Malo, he witneſſed the unfortunate affair at St. Cas, on the 28th of that month, and ſhewed great reſolution and firmneſs of mind. His highneſs, after he had gone through the ſubordinate offices of midſhipman and lieutenant, was, on the 19th of June 1759, promoted to the command of his majeſty's ſhip Phœnix, of forty guns. On the 28th of next month, he ſailed from Plymouth, on board the Hero man of war, with the preſent lord Edgecumbe, and upon his joining the fleet off Breſt, was complimented by admiral Hawke, and all the other flag officers and captains of that ſquadron. He returned, with Sir Edward

Edward and admiral Hardy, to Plymouth ſound, on the 13th of October, and ſoon after his landing ſet out for London.

On the 1ſt of April, 1760, his late majeſty was pleaſed to grant unto his royal highneſs, and the heirs male of his body, the dignities of duke of the kingdom of Great Britain, and of earl of the kingdom of Ireland, by the name, ſtiles, and titles, of duke of York and Albany, in the ſaid kingdom of Great Britain, and of earl of Ulſter, in the ſaid kingdom of Ireland. He took the oaths, and his ſeat, in the Britiſh ſenate, on the 9th of May following; and on the 27th of October, that year, two days after his brother's acceſſion to the throne, was ſworn of the privy-council. On the 31ſt of March, 1761, his royal highneſs was appointed rear-admiral of the Blue, and ſworn in at the Admiralty on the 8th of next month.

The common-council of London, on the 5th of June, 1761, voted that the freedom of their city be preſented to his royal highneſs in a gold box of 150 guineas value, in teſtimony of their dutiful affection for their ſovereign, and as a pledge of their grateful reſpect to his royal highneſs, for his early entrance into the naval ſervice of his king and country, the nobleſt and moſt effectual bulwark of the wealth, reputation, and independence of this commercial nation; and that his royal highneſs be humbly requeſted to honour the city by his acceptance of the ſaid freedom. His royal highneſs having ſignified his conſent to accept this token of the citizens eſteem, Sir Matthew Blakiſton, lord mayor, accompanied by twelve other aldermen, together with the maſter of the grocers company, attended by a committee of his brethren, waited on his highneſs, on the 12th of the next month, when the maſter of the grocers company preſented him with the freedom of that ſociety, and the comptroller of the chamber of London delivered to him that of the city; it being a fundamental part of the conſtitution of London, that no perſon be admitted a freeman of the city, till he be firſt ſo in ſome of the companies; and likewiſe cuſtomary, when an honorary freedom is granted, for the company, whereof the lord mayor is a member, previouſly to admit the intended citizen into their fraternity.

At his brother's nuptials, September 8, 1761, his highneſs, as chief ſupporter to the royal bride, walked on her right hand: and at the proceſſion of the enſuing coronation, on the 22d of that month, appeared in his robes, as firſt prince of the blood.

On the 23d of June, 1762, he hoiſted his flag, at Spithead, on board the Princeſs Amelia (whereof lord Howe was captain) and falling down to St. Helen's, ſailed, with the fleet under Sir Edward Hawke, on a cruize, to the coaſts of France, Spain, and Portugal, from which he returned the Auguſt following. His royal highneſs, on the 28th of next month, ſet ſail with a ſmall ſquadron, from St. Helen's to the Bay of Biſcay, and returning thence to Plymouth, on the 30th of October, was elected high ſteward of that corporation, and about the ſame time preferred to be vice-admiral of the Blue. In that quality, he ſailed from

from Plymouth, on the 14th of November following, with the fleet under Sir Charles Hardy, on a cruize to the weſtward, and, on the return of that ſquadron, arrived the 13th of December at London, where he chiefly reſided till June 30, when he ſet out on a tour to different parts of England, as he had done the three preceding ſummers, and was every where received with the reſpect due to his rank.

At the baptiſm of his nephew, prince Frederick, September 19, 1763, his royal highneſs ſtood godfather, by his proxy the earl of Huntingdon, being then on his way to Plymouth, to embark for foreign parts. He ſet ſail from that port September 22, on board the Centurion, commanded by commodore Harriſon; and as he choſe to travel incog. he took the title of earl of Ulſter, in which character he was received at the court of Liſbon, where he arrived October 3. From thence he departed in the ſame ſhip, October 28, for Gibraltar, where he ſtaid but two days, and then ſailed to Port Mahon, where he remained till November 17, and then ſteered for Genoa, which he reached on the 28th.

After reſiding there about ten weeks, he viſited Turin, Florence, Leghorn, Rome, Parma, Venice, Padua, Milan, and other noted cities in Italy; and was entertained, with great magnificence, in every place; but did not proceed to Naples, as there was a malignant diſtemper raging in the Neapolitan dominions. On Friday, Auguſt 17, 1764, his royal highneſs, re-imbarking at Genoa on board the Centurion, landed on the 20th at Nice, in the king of Sardinia's territories, from whence he went to Antibes, the firſt town from Italy in the French dominions; and from thence through Aix, Avignon, Valence, Vienne, Lions, Villefranche, Maçon, Tournées, Chalon, Dijon, Langres, Chamount, St. Dizier, Chalons au Champagne, Rheims, Laon, St. Quintin, Peronne, Arras, and St. Omer, to Calais; without touching at Paris, where magnificent preparations were made for his reception.

The reaſon of his not coming through Paris, was ſaid to be a coldneſs which then ſubſiſted between the courts of London and Verſailles, on account of ſome late infractions in the treaty of peace, by the French. He croſſed the ſtraits, and landed at Dover on the 31ſt of Auguſt; from whence he proceeded to London.

On the 5th of December, 1764, he was elected preſident of the London hoſpital. He had before been made a fellow of the royal ſociety.

In the ſummer, 1765, his royal highneſs made the tour of ſeveral parts of Holland and Germany. On the 12th of June he arrived at the Hague, and was complimented by a deputation from the States-General. In July he viſited the court of Berlin, where he was received and entertained by the king of Pruſſia with particular marks of diſtinction and favour. About the beginning of Auguſt he returned to England, and immediately viſited Tunbridge and other parts which he had not ſeen before.

When the parliament met, which

it did in December, he attended his duty there, as one of the peers of the realm; and on the queſtion about repealing the American ſtamp act, voted againſt the miniſters, and was again numbered with the oppoſition in another diviſion, during the ſame ſeſſion. And in the ſucceeding ſeſſion (1767) upon a queſtion relating to the bill of indemnity, framed and paſſed by the aſſembly of Maſſachuſets Bay, he ſpoke againſt the miniſters then in office.

On Tueſday, July the 7th, (five days after the prorogation of parliament) his royal highneſs ſet out for Dover, in order to viſit the continent once more. He was attended by the hon. col. St. John, John Wrotteſly, eſq; and the hon. colonel Morriſon. On the 11th he arrived at Bruſſels, under the title of earl of Ulſter, and was politely received by prince Charles, who had juſt before entertained the prince and princeſs of Brunſwick with great magnificence. From Bruſſels he went to Mons, and to Paris. On the 19th he was preſented to the king and queen of France at Compeigne, under the title of earl of Ulſter; and on the 23d his royal highneſs had the honour to ſup with their majeſties. A few days afterwards, he was preſent at a grand review of the French troops by the king himſelf, who aſked his royal highneſs how he liked his troops; to which the prince anſwered, "That they certainly made a fine appearance, and for the ſake of your majeſty, added he, and my brother, I hope never to ſee them any where elſe." His royal highneſs was next invited by the king and queen to a grand entertainment at Chantilly, to which the prince of Conde, by the king's order, invited upwards of three hundred of the principal nobility of France. The duke of Orleans invited his royal highneſs to take the diverſion of the chace with him, which he did ſeveral times. During his ſtay at the French court he was daily entertained and complimented by the princes, princeſſes, and nobility of France, all of whom ſeemed to vie with each other in ſhewing him the higheſt honours and reſpect.

We have given an authentic account in our chronicle of the circumſtances relative to his royal highneſs's laſt illneſs; we have no alteration to make in it, but to obſerve, that another account ſays his illneſs was occaſioned by the great fatigues he underwent, for two days of exceſſive hot weather, in viewing the fortifications of Toulon. We have mentioned this, though a matter of little conſequence, as we would leave no particular unnoticed, upon this affecting and melancholy occaſion.

It is needleſs to delineate his character, for it is engraved in the heart of every Engliſhman. His affability, good-nature, humanity, and generoſity, endeared him to all ranks of people. He was fond of company and pleaſures, which induced him to viſit moſt places of public reſort; and contributed to make him very generally known, and much beloved. He was particularly kind and tender to his domeſtics, who regarded him with the moſt real affection, and lament his loſs with the moſt unfeigned ſorrow. He was a lover of the polite and fine arts; and, if his royal highneſs had lived, it is probable, that his diſpoſition to, and

and knowlege of, maritime affairs, might have put the nation under as great obligations to him, as they had been to his royal uncle for his military ſervices. He died univerſally lamented, and the great tenderneſs, reſpect, and regard, which was ſhewn upon that melancholy occaſion, and during the whole courſe of his illneſs by the prince of Monaco, deſerve every tribute of praiſe and gratitude. His eſtabliſhment was 20,000*l.* ſterling *per annum*, viz. from the king his brother 9,000*l.* from the public 8000*l.* a penſion on Ireland 3000*l.*

A narrative of the extraordinary diſtreſſes which were ſuffered at ſea, by the ſurviving part of the crew of the brig Sally, captain Tabry, bound from Philadelphia to Hiſpaniola.

ON the 8th of Auguſt laſt, in latitude 25, having a ſtrong gale of wind, the brig was laid to under her main-ſtay-ſail till ten o'clock the next morning, when ſhe was hove on her beam ends, and in leſs than five minutes turned keel upwards, ſo that they had only time to cut away the lanyards of her main-maſt. There were on board Anthony Tabry, maſter; Humphry Mars, mate; Joſeph Sherver, Samuel Beſs, John Burna, mariners, who were drowned: ſix other mariners, viz. Peter Toy, Daniel Cultain, John Davis, Alexander Landerry, Peter Mayes, and William Hammon, having got hold of the top maſts which floated alongſide, tied it to the ſtern, and ſupported themſelves by it, till about five o'clock in the evening, when the cabbin-boy ſwam to the hull, and threw them a rope, by which they got on the bottom of the veſſel, where they were ſtill in a diſmal plight: the firſt want that invaded them was drink; this drove away all thought of meat. The main-maſt with all the rigging, the lanyards having been cut away, came up alongſide, from which they got the wreath, (a ſquare hoop, which binds the head of the maſt) with which, and a bolt of a foot long, they went to work on her bottom, in the mean time keeping their mouths moiſt, as well as they could, by chewing the ſtuff off her bottom, ſhe not having any barnacles, being lately cleaned, and ſome lead which was on her bow, and drinking their own water. In four days time Peter Tory died raving for drink, whoſe body they threw off the veſſel the next day. In this manner did they work for ſix days, without meat, drink, or ſleep, not daring to lie down for fear of falling off the veſſel: the ſixth day they got a hole in the brig, where they found a barrel of bottled beer; this they drank very greedily: they ſoon got another parcel, when one of them put the others on allowance. The eleventh day of their being on the wreck, they got a barrel of pork, which they were obliged to eat raw. As to ſleep, as ſoon as they got a hole through the veſſel's bottom, they pulled out a great number of ſtaves and ſhingles, and made a platform in the ſame place; but ſo ſmall it was, that when they wanted to turn, they were obliged to wait till the ſea hoiſted the veſſel, and when ſhe fell again with

the ſea, they were almoſt froze to death. Thus did theſe poor miſerable fellows live for thirteen or fourteen days. After they got the pork, they made a kind of net with a hoop, ſome ſhingles, and ropes, which they got from the maſt: this they let into the ſea, with ſome pork, and caught a few ſmall fiſh, which, with two or three mice they caught on board the brig, afforded them ſeveral moſt delicious repaſts, raw as they were: this laſted but a few days, as they could not catch any more; when they were obliged to return to their pork, which was become quite putrid by the ſalt water getting to it. To their great joy, on the 1ſt of September, in lat. 26, 15, long. 70, 10, at four o'clock in the afternoon, they could juſt perceive a veſſel to windward of them, which ſeemed to ſtand ſome time for them, but ſoon put about and ſtood from them: it was then they deſpaired, as that morning they had drank the laſt bottle of their beer, and that one was all they had; for that day they worked hard to get at the caſks of water in the hold, but they were ſo far from them that they could not have got at them in a long time. About ſun half an hour high, the veſſel ſtood for them, and came ſo near that they perceived a piece of canvas that they on the wreck ſupported on a board, bore down for it, and about ſeven or eight o'clock took them on board; ſhe was the brig Norwich, captain Robert Noyes. Thus were they relieved, when death ſtared them in the face, by a captain who uſed them very kindly, gave them food and cloaths, as their own were rotted off their backs, waſhed their ſores, and gave them plaſters, as they were almoſt raw from head to foot with the heat of the ſun and ſalt water, which, in many places, had eaten holes in their fleſh.

The following piece is ſaid to have been found lately among ſome papers that formerly belonged to Oliver Cromwell; and is ſuppoſed to be a copy of the very words which he ſpoke to the members of the long parliament, when he turned them out of the houſe. It is communicated by a perſon, who ſigns his name T. Ireton, and ſays the paper is marked with the following words;

"Spoken by O. C. when he put an end to the long parliament."

IT is high time for me to put an end to your ſitting in this place; which ye have diſhonoured by your contempt of all virtue, and defiled by your practice of every vice. Ye are a factious crew, and enemies to all good government.—Ye are a pack of mercenary wretches, and would, like Eſau, ſell your country for a meſs of pottage, and, like Judas, betray your God for a few pieces of money. Is there a ſingle virtue now remaining amongſt you? Is there one vice ye do not poſſeſs?—Ye have no more religion than my horſe—Gold is your God.—Which of you have not bartered away your conſciences for bribes? Is there a man amongſt you that hath the leaſt care for the good of the commonwealth? Ye ſordid proſtitutes! have ye not defiled this ſacred place, and turned

ed the Lord's Temple into a den of thieves?—By your immoral principles and wicked practices ye are grown intolerably odious to the whole nation. You, who were deputed here by the people to get their grievances redreſſed, are yourſelves become their greateſt grievance.

Your country therefore calls upon me to cleanſe this Augean ſtable, by putting a final period to your iniquitous proceedings in this houſe: and which, by God's help, and the ſtrength He hath given me, I am now come to do. I command you therefore, upon the peril of your lives, to depart immediately out of this place. Go! Get you out! Make haſte! Ye venal ſlaves, be gone!—Soh! —Take away that ſhining bauble there, and lock up the doors.'

An Account of all the Public Debts, *at the receipt of his Majesty's* Exchequer, *standing out the 5th Day of* January, 1767, *(being* Old Christmas Day, *with the annual Interest, or other Charges, payable for the same.*

		Principal Debt.			Annual Interest or other charges payable for the same.		
EXCHEQUER.		*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Annuities for long terms, being the remainder of the original sum contributed and unsubscribed to the South-Sea Company		1,836,275	17	10¾	136,453	12	8
Ditto for lives, with the benefit of survivorship, being the original sum contributed		108,100	—	—	7,567	—	—
Ditto for two and three lives, being the sum remaining after what is fallen in by deaths		72,805	14	10¾	8,861	12	—
Exchequer bills made out for the interest of old bills		2,200	—	—			
Annuities for lives, with the benefit of survivorship, granted by an act of 5 Geo. III. being the original sum contributed		18,000	—	—	540	—	—
Note, The land-taxes and duties on malt, &c. being annual grants, are not charged in this account, nor the 1,000,000l. charged on the deduction of 6d. *per* pound on pensions, nor the 1,800,000l. borrowed *anno* 1766, and charged on the supplies *anno* 1767.							
EAST-INDIA Company.							
By two acts of parliament of 9 Will. III. and two other acts 6 and 9 Anne, at 3 *per cent. per ann.*		3,200,000	—	—	97,285	14	4
Annuities at 3l. *per cent. per ann.* 1744, charged on the surplus of the additional duties on low wines, spirits, and strong waters		1,000,000	—	—	30,401	15	8
BANK of ENGLAND.							
On their original fund at 3l. *per cent. per ann.* from 1 August 1743		3,200,000	—	—	100,000	—	—
For cancelling Exchequer bills 9 George I.		500,000	—	—	15,000	—	—
Purchased of the South-Sea Company		4,000,000	—	—	121,898	3	5
Annuities at 3 *per cent. per ann.* charged on the surplus of the funds for lottery 1714		1,250,000	—	—	37,500	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent. per ann.* charged on the duties on coals since Lady-day, 1719		1,750,000	—	—	52,500	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent. per ann.* anno 1746, charged on the duties on licences for retailing spirituous liquors since Lady-day 1746		986,800	—	—	29,604	—	—
Ditto at 3 *per cent. per ann.* charged on the sinking fund by acts 25, 28, 29, 32, and 33 George II. and 4 and 6 George III.	34,627,824 5 1¼	35,127,824	5	1¼	1,072,588	5	8
Ditto at 3 *per cent. per ann.* charged on the duties on offices and pensions, &c. granted by the act of 31 George II. and duty on houses and windows, by the act of 6 George III.	500,000 — —						
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the sinking fund by the act 25 George II.	17,701,323 16 4	19,183,323	16	4	585,456	14	8
Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the said fund by the act 5 George III.	1,482,000 — —						

	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Ditto at 3½ *per cent.* charged on the ſaid fund by the act 29 George II. - -	1,500,000	—	—	53,343	15	—
Ditto at 3½ *per cent.* charged on the duties on offices and penſions, by act 31 George II. and duty on windows by the act 6 George III. - - - -	4,500,000	—	—	160,031	5	—
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* charged on the ſinking fund by the acts of the 2d of George III. -	20,240,000	—	—	820,985	—	—
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* charged on the additional duties on wines, by the act 3 George III. -	3,500,000	—	—	141,968	15	—
Ditto at 4 *per cent.* reſidue of 3,483,553l. 1s. 10d. charged on the ſinking fund in lieu of navy bills, &c. re-ſubſcribed after paying off 50l. *per cent.* of that capital purſuant to the acts 5 & 6 George III. - - - - - -	1,741,776	10	11	70,650	16	2

Memorandum. The ſubſcribers of 100l. to the lottery 1745 were allowed an annuity for one life of 9s. a ticket, which amounted to 22,500l. but is now reduced, by lives fallen in, to 17,314l. 15s. and the ſubſcribers of 100l. to the lottery 1746, were allowed an annuity for one life of 18s. a ticket, which amounted to 45,000l. but is now reduced, by lives fallen in, to 34,465l. and the ſubſcribers of 100l. for 3l. *per cent.* annuities, *anno* 1757, were allowed an annuity for one life of 1l. 2s. 6d. which amounted to 33,750l. but is now reduced, by lives fallen in, to 31,558l. 15s. and the ſubſcribers of 100l. for 3 *per cent.* annuities, *anno* 1761, were allowed an annuity for 99 years of 1l. 2s. 6d. amounting, with the charges of management, to the bank of England, to 130,053l. 10s. 3d. and the contributors to 12,000,000l. for the ſervice of the year 1762, were entitled to an annuity for 98 years of 1 *per cent. per annum*, which, with the charges of management to the bank of England, amount to the ſum of 121,687l. 10s. which annuities for 99 years and 98 years, were conſolidated by the Act 4 Geo. III. all which annuities are an increaſe of the annual intereſt, but cannot be added to the public debt, as no money was advanced for the ſame. — — — — — — — — — 335,079 10 3

SOUTH-SEA Company.

On their capital ſtock and annuities 9 George I. - - - - -	25,215,309	13	11½	765,326	3	1½
Annuities at 3 *per cent.* anno 1751, charged on the ſinking fund - - -	2,100,000	—	—	64,181	5	—
	130,842,412	19	1¼	4,707,223	7	4

SUPPLIES granted by Parliament, for the Year 1767.

NOVEMBER 27, 1766.

1. THAT 16000 men be employed for the ſea ſervice, for 1767, including 4,287 marines.

2. That a ſum, not exceeding 4l. per man per month, be allowed for maintaining them, including ordnance for ſea ſervice — — — 832,000 0 0

JANUARY 26, 1767.

1. That a number of land forces, including 2,461 invalids, amounting to 16,754 effective men, commiſſion and non-commiſſion officers included, be employed for 1767.

2. For defraying the charge for the ſaid number of land forces for 1767 — — — 593,986 15 7

3. For the pay of the general and general ſtaff officers in Great Britain for 1767 — — 12,293 18 6½

4. For maintaining his majeſty's forces and garriſons in the plantations and Africa, including thoſe in garriſon at Minorca and Gibraltar, and for proviſions for the forces in North America, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Gibraltar, the ceded iſlands, and Africa, for 1767 — — — — 405,607 2 11⅝

5. For defraying the charge of the difference of pay between the Britiſh and Iriſh eſtabliſhment, of ſix regiments of foot ſerving in the Iſle of Man, at Gibraltar, Minorca, and the ceded iſlands, for 1767 — — — — — — 7,201 14 7

6. For paying the penſions to the widows of ſuch reduced officers of the land forces and marines, as died upon the eſtabliſhment of half pay in Great Britain, and who were married to them before the 25th of December 1716, for 1767 — — 1,536 0 0

7. Upon account of the reduced officers of the land forces and marines, for 1767 — — 135,299 8 4

8. For defraying the charge for allowances to the ſeveral officers and private gentlemen, of the two troops of horſe-guards, and regiment of horſe reduced, and to the ſuperannuated gentlemen of the four troops of horſe-guards for 1767 — — 2,103 11 8

9. For defraying the charge of full pay for 165 days, for 1767, to officers reduced, with the 10th

com-

company of ſeveral battalions, reduced from ten to nine companies, and who remained on half pay at the 24th of December 1765 — — — 5,633 3 4

10. For the charge of the office of ordnance for land ſervice, for 1767 — — — — 169,600 0 2

11. For defraying the expence of ſervices performed, by the office of ordnance for land ſervice, and not provided for by parliament in 1766. — 51,190 6 6

1,384,362 1 8⅛

JANUARY 29.

For the ordinary of the navy, including half pay to ſea and marine officers, for 1767 — 409,177 4 3

FEBRUARY 10.

1. Towards the buildings, rebuildings, and repairs of ſhips of war, in his majeſty's yards, and other extra works, over and above what are propoſed to be done upon the heads of wear and tear and ordinary, for 1767 — — — — 298,144 0 0

2. For purchaſing a quantity of hemp, to repleniſh his majeſty's magazines — — 30,000 0 0

328,144 0 0

FEBRUARY 12.

1. For paying off and diſcharging the exchequer bills, made out by virtue of the act of laſt ſeſſion, chap. 15. and charged upon the firſt aids, to be granted in this ſeſſion — — — — 1,800,000 0 0

2. To make good to his majeſty, the like ſum iſſued by his orders, in purſuance of the addreſſes of this houſe — — — — 12,951 2 2

1,812,951 2 2

FEBRUARY 19.

1. Towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces and other ſervices, incurred to the 3d of February 1767, and not provided for by parliament — — — — 315,917 16 5

2. Upon account, towards defraying the charge of out-penſioners of Chelſea hoſpital, for 1767 106,083 2 6

421,000 18 11

MARCH 5.

That proviſion be made for the pay and cloathing of the militia, and for their ſubſiſtence during the time they ſhall be abſent from home, on account of the annual exerciſe, for 1767.

MARCH 19.

1. Upon account, for maintaining and ſupporting the civil eſtabliſhment of Nova Scotia, for 1767	4,866	3	5
2. Upon account of ſundry expences for the ſervice of Nova Scotia for 1760, not provided for by parliament — — — — —	691	8	0
3. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Georgia, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from June 24, 1766, to June 24, 1767 — — —	3,986	0	0
4. Upon account, for defraying the charge of the civil eſtabliſhment of Eaſt Florida, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from June 24, 1766, to June 24, 1767 — — — —	4,750	0	0
5. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Weſt Florida, and other incidental expences attending the ſame, from June 24, 1766, to June 24, 1767 — — — —	4,800	0	0
6. Upon account, for defraying the expences attending general ſurveys of his majeſty's dominions in North America, for 1767 — — —	1,601	14	0
7. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil eſtabliſhment of Senegambia, for 1767	5,550	0	0
	26,245	5	5

MARCH 24.

For the marriage portion of the Queen of Denmark — — — — — —	40,000	0	0

MARCH 31.

1. Towards carrying on an additional building for a more commodious paſſage to the houſe of commons, from St. Margaret's Lane, and Old Palace Yard — — — — —	2,000	0	0
2. To be employed in maintaining and ſupporting the Britiſh forts and ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, under the direction of the committee of merchants trading to Africa — — —	13,000	0	0
	15,000	0	0

APRIL 9.

1. To replace to the ſinking fund, the like ſum iſſued thereout, to diſcharge for the year ended the 29th of September, 1766, the annuities after the rate of 4l. *per cent.* attending ſuch part of the joint ſtock, eſtabliſhed by an act of the third of his preſent majeſty, in reſpect of certain navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, and ordnance debentures, as			

remained

remained unredeemed on the ſaid 29th of September — — — — —	104,506	11	10
2. To replace to ditto, the like ſum iſſued thereout, for paying the charges of management of the annuities attending the ſaid joint ſtock, for one year, ended the 29th of September, 1766 ——	1,592	1	9¼
3. To replace to ditto, the like ſum iſſued thereout, to diſcharge from the 29th of September, 1766, to the 25th of December following, the annuities attending ſuch part of the ſaid joint ſtock as was redeemed in purſuance of an act made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament — — — —	8,708	17	7¼
4. To replace to ditto, the like ſum paid out of the ſame, to make good the deficiency on the 5th of July, 1766, of the ſeveral rates and duties upon offices and penſions, and upon houſes, and upon windows or lights, which were made a fund, by an act of the 31ſt of his late majeſty, for paying annuities in reſpect of five millions borrowed towards the ſupply granted for the ſervice of 1758 ——	49,660	9	2½
5. To replace to ditto, the like ſum paid out of the ſame, to make good the deficiency on the 10th of October, 1766, of ſeveral additional duties on wines imported, and certain duties on cyder and perry, which were made a fund for paying annuities in reſpect of 3,500,000l. borrowed towards the ſupply granted for the ſervice of 1763 ——	12,758	13	7
6. To make compenſation to Dr. Peter Swinton, for the damage done to his eſtate in the city of Cheſter at the time of the late rebellion, by order of the officer commanding the garriſon of the ſaid city — — — —	700	0	0
	177,926	14	1

April 13.

1. That the remainder of the capital ſtock of annuities, after the rate of 4l. *per cent.* granted in reſpect of certain navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, and ordnance debentures, delivered in, and cancelled, purſuant to an act made in the third year of his majeſty's reign, be redeemed, and paid off, on the 25th of December next, after diſcharging the intereſt then payable in reſpect of the ſame.			
2. To enable his majeſty to redeem and pay off the ſaid remainder — — — —	1,741,776	10	11
3. That one fourth part of the capital ſtock of annuities, after the rate of 4l. *per cent.* eſtabliſhed			

by

by the act 3 Geo. III. chap. 12. be redeemed, and paid off, on the 5th of January next, after diſcharging the intereſt then payable in reſpect of the ſame.

4. To enable his majeſty to redeem and pay off the ſaid one fourth part — — —	875,000	0	0
5. Towards paying off and diſcharging the debt of the navy — — — —	300,000	0	0
6. To make good the deficiency of the grants for the ſervice of 1766 — — —	129,144	2	8
	3,045,920	13	7

MAY 5.

1. Upon account, for enabling the Foundling-Hoſpital to maintain and educate ſuch children as were received into the ſame, on or before the 25th of March 1760, from the 31ſt of December 1766 excluſive, to the 31ſt of December 1767 incluſive, and that the ſaid ſum be iſſued and paid as on former occaſions — — — —	28,000	0	0
2. Upon account, for enabling the ſaid hoſpital to put out apprentice the ſaid children, ſo as the ſaid hoſpital do not give with any one child more than 7l. — — — —	1,500	0	0
	29,500	0	0

MAY 19.

That the half pay of the lieutenants of his majeſty's navy is unequal to the rank their commiſſions bear, and the time they have been in his majeſty's ſervice.

JUNE 15.

1. Upon account, towards ſatisfying the expences incurred by the committee of the company of merchants trading to Africa, on account of the eſtabliſhment of Senegal, and its dependencies, after the 29th of October, 1765 — —	3,500	0	0
2. For further enabling his majeſty to defray the contingent expences of the forces ſerving in North-America — — — —	2,000	0	0
	5,500	0	0
Sum total of the ſupplies granted in this ſeſſion	8,527,728	0	$6\frac{1}{8}$

Ways

Ways and means for raiſing the above ſupply granted to his Majeſty, agreed to on the following days, viz.

Nov. 27, 1766.

THAT the uſual temporary malt tax be continued from the 23d of June, 1767, to the 24th of June, 1768, 700,000l.

March 2, 1767.

That the ſum of 3s. in the pound, and no more, be raiſed within the ſpace of one year, from the 25th of March, 1767, upon lands, tenements, hereditaments, penſions, offices, and perſonal eſtates, in that part of Great Britain called England, Wales, and the town of Berwick upon Tweed; and that a proportionable ceſs, according to the 9th article of the treaty of union, be laid upon that part of Great Britain called Scotland, 1,528,568l. 11s. 11d. $\frac{3}{4}$.

March 9.

1. That the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia, in that part of Great Britain called England, for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1767, be defrayed out of the monies ariſing by the land tax, granted for the ſervice of 1767.

2. That the ſum of 1,800,000l. be raiſed by loans or exchequer bills, if not diſcharged with intereſt thereupon, on or before the 5th of April, 1768, to be exchanged and received in payment, in ſuch manner as exechequer bills have uſually been exchanged and received in payment.

April 2.

1. That an additional duty of 6s. be laid upon every dozen of baſt, or ſtraw, chip, cane, and horſe hair hats, and bonnets, which from and after the ſecond of April, 1767, ſhall be entered inward at any port, or place, in this kingdom.

2. That an additional duty of 6s. be laid upon every pound weight avoirdupoiſe of platting, or other manufacture of baſt, or ſtraw, chip, cane, or horſe hair, to be uſed in, or proper for, making of hats or bonnets, which, from and after the ſaid 2d of April, ſhall be entered inwards at any port, or place, in this kingdom.

April 16.

1. That towards the ſupply granted to his majeſty, the ſum of 1,500,000l. be raiſed in manner following, that is to ſay, the ſum of 900,000l. by annuities, after the rate of 3l. per cent. to commence from the 5th of January laſt, and the ſum of 600,000l. by a lottery to conſiſt of 60,000 tickets, the whole of ſuch ſum to be divided into prizes, which are to be attended with the like 3l. per cent. annuities, to commence from the 5th of January, 1768; and that all the ſaid annuities be tranſferrable at the Bank of England, paid half-yearly on the 5th of July, and the 5th of January, in every year, out of the ſinking fund, and added to, and made part of, the joint ſtock of 3l. per cent. annuities, which were conſolidated at the Bank of England, by certain acts made in the 25th and 28th years of the reign of his late majeſty, and ſeveral ſubſequent acts, and ſubject to redemption by parliament; that every contributor towards the ſaid ſum of 900,000l. ſhall, in reſpect of every 60l. agreed by him to be contributed for raiſing ſuch ſum, be intitled

intitled to receive four tickets in the ſaid lottery, upon payment of 10l. for each ticket; and that every contributor ſhall, on or before the 29th of April next, make a depoſit with the caſhiers of the bank of England, of 20l. per cent. in part of the monies ſo to be contributed towards the ſaid ſum of 900,000l. and alſo a depoſit of 5l. per cent. in part of the monies ſo to be contributed in reſpect of the ſaid lottery, as a ſecurity for making the reſpective future payments to the ſaid caſhiers, on or before the times hereinafter limited; that is to ſay, on the 900,000l. 10l. per cent. on or before the 27th of March next; 10l. per cent. on or before the 26th of June next; 15l. per cent. on or before the 27th of Auguſt next; 15l. per cent. on or before the 25th of September next; 15l. per cent. on or before the 30th of October next; 15l. per cent. on or before the 17th of November next. On the lottery for 600,000l. 25l. per cent. on or before the 16th of June next; 30l. per cent. on or before the 28th of July next; 40l. per cent. on or before the 11th of September next. And that all the monies ſo received by the ſaid caſhiers be paid into the receipt of his majeſty's exchequer, to be applied, from time to time, to ſuch ſervices as ſhall then have been voted by this houſe in this ſeſſion of parliament; and that every contributor who ſhall pay in the whole of his contribution towards the ſaid ſum of 900,000l. at any time on or before the 27th of October next, or towards the ſaid lottery on or before the 24th of July next, ſhall be allowed an intereſt, by way of diſcount, after the rate of 3l. per cent. per annum, on the ſums ſo compleating his contribution reſpectively, to be computed from the day of compleating the ſame, to the 17th of November next, in reſpect of the ſum paid on account of the ſaid 900,000l. and to the 11th of September next, in reſpect of the ſum paid on account of the ſaid lottery.

2. That an additional duty of 3d. per ell be laid upon all linen cloth, or ſheeting, above one yard Engliſh in width, which ſhall be imported into this kingdom, except from Holland and Flanders.

3. That an additional duty of 3d. per ell be laid upon all canvas drilling, which ſhall be imported into this kingdom.

4. That the ſaid duties be carried to the ſinking fund, towards making good to the ſame the payment to be made thereout of the annuities attending the ſaid ſum of 1,500,000l.

5. That the additional duties upon baſt, or ſtraw, chip, cane, and horſe hair hats and bonnets, and upon platting, or other manufacture of baſt, or ſtraw, chip, cane, or horſe-hair, to be uſed in, or proper for, making of hats or bonnets, imported into any port, or place, in this kingdom, granted to his majeſty in this ſeſſion, be alſo carried to the ſaid fund, towards making good the ſaid payments.

6. That towards making good the ſaid ſupply, there be applied the ſum of 469,147l. 14s. 3d. $\frac{1}{4}$ remaining in the receipt of the exchequer, on the 5th of April, 1767, for the diſpoſition of parliament, of the monies which had then ariſen of the ſurpluſſes, exceſſes, or overplus monies, and other revenues, compoſing the fund

fund commonly called the Sinking Fund.

7. That towards raiſing the ſaid ſupply, there be applied the ſum of 2,010,121 l. 10s. 3d. $\frac{1}{2}$ out of ſuch monies as ſhall or may ariſe of the ſurpluſſes, exceſſes, or overplus monies, and other revenues, compoſing the ſaid fund commonly called the Sinking Fund.

8. That, towards making good the ſaid ſupply, there be applied the ſum of 35,202 l. 9 s. 2 d. alſo remaining in the receipt of the exchequer, for the diſpoſition of parliament.

9. That a ſum not exceeding 261,571 l. 13 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ out of the ſavings ariſing upon grants for the pay of ſeveral regiments upon reſpited pay, by off-reckonings, and by ſtoppages made for proviſions delivered to the forces in North America, the Weſt Indies, and at Minorca, to the 24th of December, 1764, and received of William earl of Chatham, formerly paymaſter general of his majeſty's forces, for the balance remaining over and above the monies found neceſſary to be applied for defraying the expences of the forces in former years; and alſo out of the ſum of one million, granted in the ſecond year of his majeſty's reign, on account, to enable him to defray extraordinary expences of the war, for the ſervice of 1762, and to aſſiſt the kingdom of Portugal, and for other purpoſes, be applied towards making good the ſupply granted, towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces, and other ſervices, incurred to the 3d of February, 1767, and not provided for by parliament.

10. That out of ſuch monies remaining in the hands of Edward Sainthill, eſq; as were iſſued to him for the relief and maintenance of the widows of officers of the land forces and marines, who died in the ſervice, the ſum of 7,844 l. 17 s. 9 d. be paid into the hands of the paymaſter general of his majeſty's forces, and be alſo applied towards making good the ſaid ſupply granted, towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majeſty's land forces, and other ſervices, incurred to the 3d of February, 1767, and not provided for by parliament.

11. That a ſum, not exceeding 110,000 l. out of ſuch monies as ſhall be paid into the receipt of the Exchequer, after the 5th of April, 1767, and on or before the 5th of April, 1768, of the produce of all or any of the duties and revenues, which, by any act or acts of parliament, have been directed to be reſerved for the diſpoſition of parliament, towards defraying the neceſſary expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, be applied towards making good ſuch part of the ſupply as hath been granted to his majeſty, for maintaining his majeſty's forces and garriſons in the plantations, and for proviſions for the forces in North America, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the ceded iſlands, for the year 1767.

12. That ſuch of the monies as ſhall be paid into the receipt of the exchequer, after the 5th of April, 1767, and on or before the 5th of April, 1768, of the produce of the duties charged by an act of parliament made in the

fifth

fifth year of his preſent majeſty's reign upon the importation and exportation of Gum Senega and Gum Arabic, be applied towards making good the ſupply granted to his majeſty.

13. That the ſum of 150,000l. remaining in the receipt of the exchequer, which was granted to his majeſty, in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, upon account, for defraying the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1766, be applied towards raiſing the ſaid ſupply.

14. That a ſum not exceeding 181,000l. of the monies agreed to be paid by a convention between his majeſty and the French king, concluded and ſigned at London, the 27th of February, 1765, for the maintenance of the late French priſoners of war, be applied towards making good the ſaid ſupply.

15. That the ſum of 84,604l. 3s. 3d. remaining in the receipt of the exchequer on the 5th of April, 1767, of the two ſevenths exciſe, granted by an act of 5 and 6 William and Mary, after ſatisfying the ſeveral charges and incumbrances thereupon, for the half year then ended, be carried to, and made part of, the aggregate fund, and that the ſaid fund be made a ſecurity for the diſcharge of ſuch annuities, and other demands, payable out of the ſaid ſum, as the growing produce of the ſaid two ſevenths exciſe ſhall not be ſufficient to anſwer.

MAY 5.

1. That an additional duty of 3d. per ell, be laid upon all linen cloth or ſheeting above one yard Engliſh in width, which ſhall be imported into this kingdom, from Holland and Flanders, except cloth of the manufacture of thoſe countries.

2. That an additional duty of 3d. per ell, be laid upon all drilling, other than canvas drilling, which ſhall be imported into this kingdom.

3. That the ſaid duties be carried to the ſinking fund, towards making good to the ſame, the payments to be made thereout, of the annuities to be eſtabliſhed in reſpect of the ſum of 1,500,000l. to be raiſed in purſuance of a reſolution of this houſe, on the 16th of April laſt.

4. That an act made in the 7th of Geo. II. chap. 18. which was to continue in force from the 24th of June, 1734, for ſeven years, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, and which, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts paſſed in the 14th, 20th, 27th, and 33d of his ſaid late majeſty, was further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the 29th of September, 1767, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion, is near expiring, and fit to be continued.

MAY 7.

1. That there be laid an additional duty of one half-penny per ell, upon all foreign canvas, packing, ſpruſe, Elbing, or Quinſborough, imported into this kingdom.

2. That there be laid an additional duty of 1d. per ell on all foreign canvas, Dutch barraſs, or Heſſens, imported into this kingdom.

3. That all foreign lawns imported into this kingdom, be rated as Sileſia lawns, and pay accordingly.

4. That

4. That over and above the ſaid duty an additional duty of 3d. per yard be laid upon all foreign lawns.

5. That a ſum, not exceeding 15,000 l. per annum ariſing from the ſaid duties, do remain in the receipt of the exchequer, as a fund for the encouragement of raiſing and dreſſing hemp and flax in this kingdom, in ſuch way and manner as parliament ſhall hereafter direct, and that the remainder of the ſaid duties be reſerved in the exchequer for the future diſpoſition of parliament.

MAY 19.

1. That there be granted to his majeſty, upon the poſtage and conveyance of letters and packets between Great-Britain and the iſle of Man, for every ſingle letter 2d. for every double letter 4d. for every treble letter 6d. and for every ounce 8d. and ſo in proportion for every packet of deeds, writs, and other things.

2. For the poſtage and conveyance of letters and packets, within the ſaid iſland, ſuch rates, in proportion to the number of miles, or ſtages, as are now eſtabliſhed for the iſland, port, or conveyance of letters and packets in England.

3. That the monies ariſing by the ſaid rates be appropriated to ſuch uſes as the preſent rates of poſtage are now made applicable.

JUNE 2.

1. That the duties upon logwood, exported from this kingdom, be diſcontinued.

2. That the properties of any number of perſons whatſoever, in any ſhip or cargo, or both, be allowed to be aſſured, to the amount of any ſum, not exceeding 1000 l. by a policy ſtamped with one 5 s. ſtamp; and to the amount of any larger ſum, by a policy ſtamped with two ſuch ſtamps.

3. That the allowance authorized to be made by an act paſſed in the 29th of his late majeſty, upon prompt payment of the ſtamp duties on licences for retailing beer, ale, and other exciſeable liquors, be reduced to the ſame rate as the allowances for prompt payment of other ſtamp-duties.

4 That upon the exportation from this kingdom of coffee and cocoa nuts, of the growth or produce of the Britiſh colonies, or plantations in America, as merchandize, a drawback be allowed, of the duties of cuſtoms, payable upon the importation thereof.

5. That grey or ſcrow ſalt, ſalt ſcale, ſand ſcale, cruſtings, or other foul ſalt, be allowed to be taken from the ſalt-works in England, Wales, or Berwick upon Tweed, to be uſed as manure, upon payment of a duty of 1 d. per buſhel only.

6. That proviſion be made, for declaring that ribbands and ſilks, printed, ſtained or painted, in this kingdom, though leſs than half a yard in breadth, are within the meaning of certain acts made in the 10th and 12th of queen Anne, and liable to the duties therein mentioned.

7. That the duties payable upon Succus Liquoritiæ, imported into this kingdom, be repealed.

8. That in lieu thereof, a duty of 30 s. per hundred weight, be laid upon Succus Liquoritiæ imported into this kingdom.

9. That the ſaid duty be appropriated to ſuch uſes, as the

duty ſo to be repealed was made applicable.

10. That a ſubſidy of 6d. in the pound, according to the value ſpecified in the book of rates, referred to by an act made in the 12th of king Charles II. be laid upon the exportation from this kingdom, of ſuch rice as ſhall have been imported duty free, by virtue of an act made in this ſeſſion of parliament.

11. That the ſaid duty on rice be reſerved in the exchequer for the diſpoſition of parliament.

12. That the drawbacks payable on China earthen-ware, exported to America, be diſcontinued.

13. That a duty of 4s. 8d. per hundred weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all crown, plate, flint, and white glaſs, imported into the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America.

14. That a duty of 1s. 2d. per hundred weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all green glaſs, imported into the ſaid colonies and plantations.

15. That ſuch duties as ſhall be equal to a moiety of the duties granted by two acts of parliament, made in the 10th and 12th of her majeſty queen Anne, and now payable in purſuance thereof, or of any ſubſequent act of parliament, upon paper, paſte boards, millboards, and ſcaleboards, reſpectively, be laid upon paper, paſteboards, millboards, and ſcaleboards imported into the ſaid colonies and plantations.

16. That a duty of 2s. per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all red and white lead, and painters colours, imported into the ſaid colonies and plantations.

17. That a duty of 3d. per pound weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all tea, imported into the ſaid colonies and plantations.

18. That the ſaid duties, to be raiſed in the ſaid colonies and plantations, be applied in making a more certain and adequate proviſion for the charge of the adminiſtration of juſtice, and the ſupport of civil government, in ſuch of the ſaid colonies and plantations, where it ſhall be found neceſſary, and that the reſidue of ſuch duties be paid into the receipt of his majeſty's exchequer, and there reſerved to be, from time to time, diſpoſed of by parliament, towards defraying the neceſſary expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring the ſaid colonies and plantations.

19. That, upon the exportation of teas to Ireland, and the Britiſh dominions in America, a drawback be allowed, for a time to be limited, of all the duties of cuſtoms, which ſhall have been paid thereupon; and that ſuch indemnification be made, by the Eaſt India company, to the public, in reſpect of ſuch drawback, as is mentioned in the petition of the ſaid company.

20. That the inland duty of 1s. per pound weight, upon all black and ſinglo teas conſumed in Great Britain, be taken off, for a time to be limited, and that ſuch indemnification be made, by the ſaid company, to the public, in reſpect of ſuch duty, as is mentioned in the petition of the ſaid company.

JUNE 10.

There were twenty reſolutions of the ſaid committee reported and agreed to by the houſe; by the firſt of which all duties then payable to his majeſty, upon goods imported into, or exported from the Iſle of Man, were aboliſhed; but by the eighteen next following reſolutions, a great variety of new duties upon ſuch goods were impoſed, which I do not think it neceſſary to tranſcribe, as ſo very few people in this kingdom can now have any trade or correſpondence with that iſland, and thoſe that have muſt provide themſelves with a copy of the act itſelf. And as to the 20th reſolution of this day, it was as follows:

That ſuch bounties as may hereafter become due and payable, under the ſeveral acts which have been made for the encouragement of the Britiſh white-herring fiſhery, be paid by the receiver general of the cuſtoms, in that part of Great Britain called Scotland, out of any monies remaining in his hands.

Theſe were all the reſolutions of the committee of ways and means agreed to by the houſe, and with regard to the ſums thereby provided for, and which can now be aſcertained, they ſtand as follows:

	l.	*s.*	*d.*
By the reſolution of November 27	700000	0	0
By that of March 2	1528368	11	11¾
By the ſecond of March 9	1800000	0	0
By the firſt of April 16	1500000	0	0
By the Sixth of ditto	469147	14	0½
By the ſeventh of ditto	2010121	10	3½
By the eighth of ditto	35202	9	2
By the ninth of ditto	261571	13	3¼
By the tenth of ditto	7844	17	9
By the eleventh of ditto	110000	0	0
By the thirteenth of ditto	150000	0	0
By the fourteenth of ditto	181000	0	0
Sum total of ſuch proviſions as can now be aſcertained	8753256	16	6
Exceſs of the proviſions	225528	15	11⅞

Thus we ſee that the ſum total even of thoſe proviſions made by this ſeſſion, whoſe produce can be aſcertained, or nearly aſcertained, exceed the grants; but then we are to conſider, that no money was by this ſeſſion granted for the pay and cloathing of the militia during the year 1767, the whole of that expence being now to be taken from the land-tax, without granting any ſum of money for replacing it, as was done in the preceding ſeſſion; for in this ſeſſion the committee of ſupply only reſolved by the reſolution of the 25th of March, that proviſion ſhould be made for the militia, but did not grant any particular ſum for that purpoſe; therefore this reſolution

was, as ſoon agreed to, referred to the committee of ways and means, and the whole of the 150000 l. granted by the preceding ſeſſion for the militia, was in this ſeſſion made applicable to the ſupply of 1767, by the ſaid thirteenth reſolution of that committee agreed to on the 16th of April; ſo that if we deduct the ſaid 150000l. together with the uſual deficiencies of the land and malt taxes, from this exceſs, it will bring the exceſs to the wrong ſide of this account; conſequently, if there ſhould happen any other deficiency, it muſt be ſupplied by the produce of the new taxes impoſed by this ſeſſion, or by a new grant in the next; for by the ſaid reſolutions of April the 16th, we ſeem to have ſwept the exchequer ſo clean as to have left nothing that can be applied by next ſeſſion to that purpoſe, except the caſual produce of theſe new taxes.

However, notwithſtanding the reduction of the land-tax, we have in this ſeſſion made a good beginning towards paying off the national debt, for we have paid off near three millions, as appears from the ſecond, fourth, and fifth ſupply reſolutions of April the 13th, and have for that purpoſe borrowed but 1500000 l. ſo that of our 4 l. per cent. debts we have paid clear off very near 1500000 l. and have reduced another 1500000l. from 4 l to 3 l. per cent. intereſt. And if the land-tax had in this ſeſſion been continued as formerly at 4 s. in the pound, we ſhould have been able to have paid clear off at leaſt two millions of our 4 l. per cent. debts, and ſhould not have been obliged to have borrowed above a million, which would have operated much more powerfully in raiſing the price of all our 3 l. per cent. debts; and to aim as much as poſſible at this we are bound by every thing that can be dear to mankind; for until our 3 l. per cent. come to be ſold at par, we cannot vindicate either the honour or intereſt of our country with ſo much ſpirit as we might otherwiſe do; therefore it is to be hoped, that in the very next ſeſſion we ſhall again reſume that very ſalutary meaſure of continuing the land-tax at 4 s. in the pound; for from the ſupplies of this very ſeſſion it is evident, that the neceſſary expence of the current ſervice of this year amounts to 3298171 l. and we cannot ſuppoſe that the expence of the current ſervice in any future year, even in time of peace, will ever amount to leſs; conſequently, as we have now no free revenue but the land and malt taxes, if the former be continued at 3 s. in the pound, we can never ſpare above a million a year from the ſinking fund, for the payment of our debts, and a million a year is too weak a power for raiſing ſuch a heavy weight as that of our preſent load of debts, before our being involved in ſome new and dangerous war.

It may be ſaid, that ſeveral new taxes have been granted in this ſeſſion, which will add to the annual produce of the public revenue, and thereby enable us to pay off a larger ſum of the debt yearly, without encroaching further upon our ſinking fund; but when we come to conſider thoſe taxes, I believe it may be ſhewn, that few, or at leaſt not many of them, can properly and juſtly be ſaid to be applicable to the current ſervice; that ſome of them will

will rather diminiſh than increaſe the public revenue, and as to others, though they may add a little to the ſinking fund in one way, yet they will probably in another way diminiſh it as much, if not more; eſpecially ſome of thoſe taxes impoſed upon our people in North America; for from experience we know that before any of the late taxes were impoſed upon them, the ballance of trade between North America and Great Britain was always ſo much againſt them, that they could never keep any ready money amongſt them, but were obliged to ſend it to Great Britain as faſt as they could procure it by their trade with foreign countries, or with our ſugar iſlands. This was occaſioned by their having almoſt all their manufactures and all their utenſils, as well the coarſe as fine ſort of every kind, from Great Britain: If we by taxes increaſe their expence of living in their own country, how ſhall they ſave money to purchaſe from us thoſe manufactures, and thoſe utenſils? They muſt make a ſhift with thoſe of the coarſeſt ſort: In the mean time they certainly will encourage the ſetting up of ſuch manufactures and mechanical trades amongſt themſelves, and for that purpoſe will give encouragement and employment to every poor manufacturer and mechanic who tranſplants himſelf from this to that country.

STATE PAPERS.

His Majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech to both houſes of parliament, on Thurſday the 2d day of July, 1767.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

THE advanced ſeaſon of the year, joined to the conſideration of the inconvenience you muſt all have felt from ſo long an abſence from your ſeveral counties, calls me to put an end to the preſent ſeſſion of parliament; which I cannot do, without returning you my thanks for your diligent application to the public buſineſs, and the proofs you have given of your affection for me and my family, and for my government; and although, from the nature and extenſiveneſs of the ſeveral objects under your conſideration, it could not be expected that all the great commercial intereſts ſhould be compleatly adjuſted and regulated in the courſe of this ſeſſion, yet I am perſuaded, that, by the progreſs you have made, a ſolid foundation is laid for ſecuring the moſt conſiderable and eſſential benefits to this nation.

As no material alteration has happened in the ſtate of foreign affairs ſince your firſt meeting, I have nothing to communicate to you on that ſubject. The fixed objects of all my meaſures are, to preſerve the peace, and, at the ſame time, to aſſert and maintain the honour of my crown, and the juſt rights of my ſubjects.

Gentlemen of the houſe of Commons.

I thank you for the neceſſary ſupplies which you have ſo chearfully granted for the public ſervice; and my particular acknowledgments are due to you, for the proviſion you have enabled me to make for the more honourable ſupport and maintenance of my family.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

The great attention which you have ſhewn to the particular purpoſe, for which I called you ſo early together, and the very wholeſome laws paſſed for relieving my ſubjects from the immediate diſtreſs which the great ſcarcity of corn threatened to bring upon them, give me the moſt ſenſible pleaſure. I rely upon you for the exertion of your utmoſt endeavours to convince my people, that no care has been wanting to procure for them every relief which has been poſſible; and that their grateful ſenſe of proviſions ſo wiſely made for their preſent happineſs and laſting proſperity cannot be ſo fully expreſſed, as by a ſtrict obſervance of that order and regularity, which are equally neceſſary to the ſecurity of all good government, as well as to their real welfare.

His Majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech to both houſes of parliament, on Tueſday the 24th of November, 1767; with the humble addreſſes of both houſes upon the occaſion, and his Majeſty's moſt gracious anſwers.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

I Have choſen to call you together at this ſeaſon of the year, that

that my parliament might have full time for their deliberations upon all ſuch branches of the public ſervice as may require their immediate attention, without the neceſſity of continuing the ſeſſion beyond the time moſt ſuitable to my people for the election of a new parliament: and I doubt not but you will be careful, from the ſame conſiderations, to avoid, in your proceedings, all unneceſſary delay.

Nothing in the preſent ſituation of affairs abroad gives me reaſon to apprehend, that you will be prevented, by any interruption of the public tranquillity, from fixing your whole attention upon ſuch points as concern the internal welfare and proſperity of my people.

Among theſe objects of a domeſtic nature, none can demand a more ſpeedy or more ſerious attention, than what regards the high price of corn, which neither the ſalutary laws paſſed in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, nor the produce of the late harveſt, have yet been able ſo far to reduce, as to give ſufficient relief to the diſtreſſes of the poorer ſort of my people. Your late reſidence in your ſeveral counties muſt have enabled you to judge, whether any farther proviſions can be made, conducive to the attainment of ſo deſireable an end.

Gentlemen of the houſe of Commons.

I will order the proper officers to lay before you the eſtimates for the ſervice of the enſuing year.

The experience I have had of your conſtant readineſs to grant me all ſuch ſupplies as ſhould be found neceſſary, for the ſecurity, intereſt, and honour of the nation, (and I have no other to aſk of you,) renders it unneceſſary for me to add any exhortations upon this head; and I doubt not, but the ſame public conſiderations will induce you to perſevere, with equal alacrity, in your endeavours to diminiſh the national debt; while, on my part, no care ſhall be wanting to contribute, as far as poſſible, to the attainment of that moſt eſſential object, by every frugal application of ſuch ſupplies, as you ſhall grant.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

The neceſſity of improving the preſent general tranquillity to the great purpoſe of maintaining the ſtrength, the reputation, and the proſperity of this country, ought to be ever before your eyes. To render your deliberations for that purpoſe ſucceſsful, endeavour to cultivate a ſpirit of harmony among yourſelves. My concurrence in whatever will promote the happineſs of my people, you may always depend upon: and in that light, I ſhall ever be deſirous of encouraging union among all thoſe, who wiſh well to their country.

The addreſs of the houſe of Lords.

Moſt gracious Sovereign,

WE your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in parliament aſſembled, return your Majeſty our humble thanks for your moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne.

We acknowledge with gratitude, your Majeſty's tender regard and concern for your people, in aſſembling the parliament at ſuch a ſeaſon, as, whilſt it provides for the convenience of your

people, will allow ſufficient time for our deliberations on the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice that may require our immediate attention: And we beg leave to aſſure your majeſty, that it ſhall be our hearty deſire to forward your Majeſty's moſt gracious purpoſe, by avoiding in our proceedings all unneceſſary delay.

We ſincerely rejoice in the proſpect of the continuance of the general tranquillity; and it is our firm reſolution to give, at a time ſo favourable for ſuch conſiderations, our ſtricteſt attention to all thoſe objects that may more immediately affect the internal welfare and happineſs of your people.

We aſſure your Majeſty, that our earneſt endeavours ſhall not be wanting for the relief of the diſtreſſes, which the poor labour under from the high price of corn, if any farther proviſions can be made conducive to ſo deſireable an end.

Permit us, Sir, to congratulate your Majeſty on the ſafe delivery of the Queen, and the birth of a Prince; and to aſſure your Majeſty of our unfeigned joy on any increaſe of your domeſtic felicity; at the ſame time that we conſider every addition to your illuſtrious houſe as a farther ſecurity of our religious and civil liberties.

We beg leave to condole with your Majeſty on the death of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, and to teſtify our ſincere concern for the loſs of a Prince, whoſe virtues and amiable qualities, as they diſtinguiſhed his life, will ever be held in the moſt grateful remembrance.

Your Majeſty may be aſſured, that being fully ſenſible of the neceſſity of improving the preſent tranquillity to the purpoſe of maintaining the ſtrength, the reputation, and proſperity of this country, we will chearfully contribute, on our part, to the ſucceſs of ſuch meaſures as ſhall be thought moſt expedient for the attainment of that great end: And that, with this view, we ſhall endeavour to cultivate that ſpirit of harmony and union, which your Majeſty, in your paternal care for the happineſs of your people, has moſt graciouſly recommended from the throne; and on which the ſucceſs of our councils, and the public welfare, ſo eſſentially depend.

His Majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.

My Lords,

Your readineſs to provide for the public ſervices with the unanimity and diſpatch ſo neceſſary at this juncture, as well as to avail yourſelves of the preſent general tranquillity, in order to promote the internal proſperity of my people, is highly agreeable to me; and I rely upon your aſſurances, that you will uſe your endeavours to relieve the diſtreſſes which the poor labour under from the high price of corn.

I thank you for the joy you expreſs on the increaſe of my royal family; and I feel for the part you take in my concern for the unexpected loſs of my late brother the Duke of York.

The addreſs of the houſe of Commons.

Moſt gracious Sovereign,

WE your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled, return your Majeſty our humble thanks for your

your moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne.

We beg leave moſt gratefully to acknowledge your Majeſty's goodneſs, and attention to the convenience of your people in calling your parliament together at this time; and to aſſure your Majeſty, that we will endeavour to improve the opportunity which the preſent happy ſtate of peace and tranquillity affords, by exerting our utmoſt abilities in the proſecution of ſuch meaſures as may moſt effectually promote the public welfare and proſperity.

We are equally ſenſible of your Majeſty's paternal care, in he meaſures already taken by your Majeſty to alleviate the diſtreſſes of the poor; and of your royal wiſdom, in recommending the ſame intereſting and important object to the conſideration of your parliament; and we will not fail to take into our moſt attentive deliberation all ſuch meaſures as ſhall appear conducive to the accompliſhment of that great and moſt deſirable end.

It is with unfeigned joy that we preſume to offer our congratulations to your Majeſty on the late increaſe of your royal family, by the birth of a Prince; and to aſſure your Majeſty that we regard as an addition to the welfare and happineſs of this nation, every increaſe of that illuſtrious houſe, under whoſe mild and auſpicious government our religious and civil liberties have been ſo happily maintained and protected.

And it is with equal grief and anxiety that we reflect on the late untimely loſs of your Majeſty's royal brother, the Duke of York; whoſe early and ready zeal in his country's cauſe ſhewed him worthy of the heroic race he ſprang from; and whoſe amiable virtues, in the more private ſcenes of life, muſt ever make his memory dear to all who had the happineſs of approaching him.

We beg leave moſt humbly to aſſure your Majeſty, that this houſe will, with a zeal and alacrity becoming the repreſentatives of an affectionate and grateful people, readily grant ſuch ſupplies as ſhall be requiſite for the ſupport of your Majeſty's government, for advancing the honour and intereſt of this country, and effectually providing for the public ſafety.

And that our regard to your Majeſty's recommendation, as well as the indiſpenſable duty we owe to thoſe whom we repreſent, will make us earneſtly attentive to the great object of diminiſhing the national debt; being convinced that nothing can ſo effectually tend to or add real luſtre and dignity to your Majeſty's government, or to give ſolid and permanent ſtrength to theſe kingdoms.

With theſe views, and in theſe ſentiments, we will endeavour, with the utmoſt unanimity and diſpatch, to promote the public ſervice, and to deſerve, by our ſincere and unwearied labours for the general good, that confidence which it has pleaſed your Majeſty to repoſe in us; not doubting of your Majeſty's gracious diſpoſition to confirm and perfect what our true zeal may ſuggeſt, for the laſting advantage and happineſs of your people.

His Majeſty's moſt gracious Anſwer.

Gentlemen,

I return you my very ſincere thanks for your dutiful and loyal ad-

addreſs; the part you take in the late happy event in my family, completes the ſatisfaction which I receive from it: and your affection to me appears equally manifeſt from the ſhare you take in the melancholy incident which we all regret, and ſerves as a conſolation to me. I ſee with pleaſure the continuance of that zeal, and true public ſpirit, which I have long experienced in my faithful commons, by your attention to the ſeveral objects recommended to your conſideration, and particularly to the means of providing againſt a ſcarcity of corn, and for paying the public debt. You may depend upon my invariable attention to the happineſs and proſperity of my kingdom.

The humble addreſs to his Majeſty, of the right hon. the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons of the city of London, in Common Council aſſembled, preſented the 11th *of November*, 1767, *on the happy occaſion of the birth of a Prince; together with their condolence on the death of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York; and his Majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.*

May it pleaſe your Majeſty,

WE your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons, of the city of London, in Common Council aſſembled, happy in every occaſion of approaching your royal preſence with our moſt dutiful congratulations, beg leave to expreſs our unfeigned joy on the ſafe delivery of that moſt excellent princeſs the Queen, and the further encreaſe of your royal family by the birth of another Prince.

We cannot but feel ourſelves deeply intereſted in every event which affects the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover, under whoſe mild government the Britiſh ſubjects have, for more than half a century, been bleſſed with a full enjoyment of their civil and religious rights, and a ſeries of happineſs unknown to the ſame extent in any former period.

Permit us, therefore, royal ſir, at the ſame time, humbly to offer our ſincere condolence on the much lamented death of your Majeſty's royal brother the Duke of York, whoſe many eminent and princely virtues have moſt juſtly endeared his memory to all your Majeſty's loyal ſubjects, and make the private loſs of the royal family, a public misfortune.

May the Divine Providence long preſerve your Majeſty; and may there never be wanting one of your Majeſty's royal deſcendants to be the guardian of our moſt happy conſtitution.

His Majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.

I thank you for this loyal addreſs, and for the ſatisfaction you expreſs in the encreaſe of my family: thoſe expreſſions of your zealous attachment cannot but be agreeable to me. The religion and liberties of my people always have been, and ever ſhall be, the conſtant objects of my care and attention; and I ſhall eſteem it one of my firſt duties to inſtil the ſame principles into thoſe who may ſucceed me.

I regard your condolence on the melancholy event of the Duke of York's death, as an additional proof of your attachment to me and my family; and I take this firſt opportunity of expreſſing my thanks for it.

His

His Excellency George Lord Viſcount Townſhend, Lord Lieutenant General, and General Governor of Ireland, his ſpeech to both houſes of parliament at Dublin, on Tueſday the 20th day of October, 1767; with their addreſſes on the occaſion, &c.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

IT is with great ſatisfaction, that, in obedience to his Majeſty's commands, I now meet you here in parliament, being confident that the end of all your conſultations will be to ſupport the honour of the crown and the juſt rights and liberties of the people.

As nothing can be more conducive to theſe great ends, than the independency and uprightneſs of the judges of the land, in the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice; I have it in charge from his Majeſty, to recommend this intereſting object to parliament, that ſuch proviſion may be made for ſecuring the judges in the enjoyment of their offices and appointments, during their good behaviour, as ſhall be thought moſt expedient.

I ſhall be happy to co-operate with you in this great work ſo graciouſly recommended by the King, and in whatever may tend to the effectual and expeditious diſtribution of juſtice throughout every part of this flouriſhing country, whoſe conſtitution and beſt ſecurity is a government by law.

Deeply intereſted as we are in the domeſtic happineſs of our moſt amiable Sovereign, you cannot but reflect with pleaſure on the encreaſe of his Majeſty's family by the birth of a Princeſs Royal; and affectionately attached as we muſt be to every branch of that illuſtrious houſe, I am perſuaded you feel moſt ſenſibly the affecting event of the death of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, whoſe many and eminent virtues had juſtly endeared him to his majeſty and all his ſubjects.

Gentlemen of the houſe of Commons,

I have ordered the proper officers to prepare and lay before you the neceſſary eſtimates, and have no other ſupplies to aſk but ſuch as have been uſually given: truſting, at the ſame time, to your wiſdom and zeal, to make further proviſions, if the neceſſary ſupport of government and the ſafety of this country ſhall require it.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

The proteſtant charter-ſchools have, from their firſt inſtitution, met with the conſtant aſſiſtance and protection of parliament; the ſame diſpoſition, I am perſuaded, will ſtill continue, as they are the great ſources of induſtry, virtue, and true religion.

The linen manufacture calls likewiſe for your utmoſt attention, and it would be a pleaſing circumſtance to me, if during my adminiſtration, I could ſee foreigners entirely prevented from interfering in any article of this important conſumption.

You may depend upon his Majeſty's gracious diſpoſition to conſent to all ſuch laws as ſhall be for the welfare and true intereſt of this kingdom.

On my own part, you may be aſſured, that I will, with the utmoſt ſatisfaction, concur with you in every thing that may promote the public good; and upon all occaſions contribute my beſt endeavours for advancing the happineſs and proſperity of Ireland.

The

The humble addreſs of the houſe of Lords to his Majeſty.

Moſt gracious Sovereign,

WE your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in parliament aſſembled, do embrace this earlieſt opportunity of teſtifying our warm and unalterable zeal for your Majeſty's ſacred perſon, family, and government.

Attached by the double tie of duty and affection, actuated by the moſt juſt confidence, founded on an uninterrupted experience of your favourable intentions towards this your loyal kingdom, we ſhall make it the conſtant object of our endeavours to ſupport the honour of the crown, and the juſt rights and liberties of the people.

Permit us, royal Sir, to aſſure you, that our minds are ſo filled with gratitude at this late inſtance of your gracious protection, in recommending to parliament that ſuch a proviſion may be made for ſecuring the judges of the land in the enjoyment of their offices and appointments, during their good behaviour, as may be found expedient, that we want words to expreſs our ſentiments on this ſubject, being fully convinced that independence is the baſis of impartiality, and that whatever may tend to the effectual and expeditious diſtribution of juſtice, and a government by law, are the beſt ſecurities of our moſt valuable conſtitution.

Intereſted as we are in the extenſion of your royal houſe, we cannot fail of conſidering every increaſe of your family a valuable acquiſition to the ſtate, whilſt we feel a filial ſatisfaction at every event which adds to the domeſtic comfort of our amiable Sovereign, and his royal conſort.

Judge then, royal Sir, how ſincere and dear is our concern at the death of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, whoſe many and eminent virtues, the early pledges of every great and glorious act, juſtly endeared him to your Majeſty and all your ſubjects.

We beg leave to acknowledge your Majeſty's goodneſs, in ſending us a chief governor in every reſpect ſo well qualified to repreſent your Majeſty.

Permit us alſo to aſſure your Majeſty, that the Proteſtant charter ſchools, the great ſource of induſtry, virtue, and true religion, ſhall have our utmoſt aſſiſtance and protection.

And that the linen manufacture, eſſential in its every branch and modification to the well-being of this kingdom, ſhall employ our unwearied vigilance that foreigners be precluded from participating in the emoluments ariſing from the conſumption of that important commodity.

And we ſhall make it our ſtudy to model all ſuch laws as ſhall appear to us to be conducive to the welfare of this kingdom, in ſuch a manner as to render them deſerving of the ſanction of your Majeſty's approbation.

The humble addreſs of the houſe of Commons to his Majeſty.

Moſt gracious Sovereign.

WE your Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Commons of Ireland in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to aſſure your Majeſty of our firm and inviolable attachment to your Majeſty's

jeſty's ſacred perſon, royal family, and government; and to return your Majeſty our moſt unfeigned thanks for the confidence which your Majeſty has been graciouſly pleaſed to repoſe in us; the continuance of which we ſhall endeavour to deſerve, by taking every meaſure, to the utmoſt of our abilities, that may tend to ſupport the honour of the crown, and the juſt rights and liberties of the people.

We are perfectly ſenſible the abilities, uprightneſs, and independency of the judges of the land are conducive to thoſe great ends; and filled with the warmeſt ſenſe of your Majeſty's paternal attention to the happineſs of your faithful ſubjects of this kingdom, we ſhall moſt chearfully and gratefully concur in the important meaſure, ſo graciouſly recommended to us by your Majeſty, for ſecuring the judges in the enjoyment of their offices and appointments during their good behaviour.

We are perfectly ſatisfied the part that nobleman will take, to whom your Majeſty has been pleaſed to commit the government of this kingdom, cannot fail to promote the important work recommended by your Majeſty, as well as whatever elſe may tend to the effectual and expeditious execution of the laws, ſo eſſential to the happineſs of this kingdom, whoſe conſtitution and ſecurity, we are fully ſenſible, is a government by law.

Permit us to congratulate your Majeſty upon the further addition to your illuſtrious houſe, by the birth of a Princeſs Royal; an event which muſt give the higheſt ſatisfaction to a people ſo deeply intereſted in the happineſs of ſo excellent a ſovereign, adorned with every virtue that conſtitutes the great king, and the amiable father of a family.

Our condolence for the melancholy event, ſo recent and affecting, we know not how to offer to your Majeſty; unwilling to renew your Majeſty's fraternal grief, we ſhall forbear to expreſs our feelings for the loſs of ſo amiable a Prince, whoſe eminent virtues had juſtly endeared him to your Majeſty and all your ſubjects.

We have ever eſteemed the Proteſtant charter ſchools as great ſources of induſtry, virtue, and true religion, and ſhall be ever ready to grant them ſuch aſſiſtance and protection, as muſt be found neceſſary for their proper ſupport and advancement. And we ſhall, with the utmoſt aſſiduity, endeavour to put an effectual ſtop to every inconvenience that has hitherto impeded the improvement of that moſt important branch of our trade, the linen manufacture; and ſhall be happy to ſee foreigners entirely prevented from interfering in any article of it.

The great affection which your loyal and faithful Commons of Ireland have ever teſtified for your ſacred perſon, and the ſucceſſion in your illuſtrious houſe, will always induce them, to the utmoſt of their abilities, to grant ſuch ſupplies as may be neceſſary for the ſupport of your Majeſty's government, and the ſafety of this kingdom.

Your Majeſty's gracious diſpoſition to conſent to all ſuch laws as may be ſalutary for the welfare and true intereſt of this kingdom, calls for our warmeſt acknowledgments.

We beg leave humbly to aſſure your

your Majeſty, that we conſider it as a particular inſtance of your Majeſty's great attention to the welfare of this kingdom, that you have been graciouſly pleaſed to appoint a chief governor, whoſe experienced abilities, as well in the cabinet as in the field, give us the higheſt expectations, that his Excellency will, in every circumſtance, ſupport the honour of the crown, and the juſt rights and liberties of your Majeſty's moſt faithful ſubjects of Ireland."

His Majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer.

His Majeſty thanks the houſe of Commons for their loyal and affectionate addreſs, expreſſive of that attachment to his perſon and family, of which his faithful people of Ireland have, at all times, given the moſt undoubted proofs.

His Majeſty, ever deſirous of ſupporting the rights and liberties of his people, equally with the honour of his crown, will receive with pleaſure whatever ſhall be offered to him, which ſhall tend to promote the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, to enforce the execution of the laws, and to ſtrengthen the preſent happy conſtitution; and does not doubt that his faithful Commons, on their part, will be ready to grant, with cheerfulneſs and unanimity, ſuch ſupplies as ſhall be aſked of them, according to their abilities, which he will always attend to, for the ſupport of his government, and the preſervation of the public ſafety.

Every poſſible improvement of the linen manufacture of Ireland, will be ſure to meet with his Majeſty's countenance and ſupport.

His Majeſty receives, with great ſatisfaction, their congratulations on the encreaſe of his family, and is ſenſible of the tender concern they expreſs for the loſs of his late royal brother the Duke of York.

The humble addreſs of the houſe of Lords to his Excellency.

WE his Majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to return your Excellency our hearty thanks for your moſt excellent ſpeech from the throne.

We ſhall endeavour, in all our proceedings, to confirm the favourable opinion your Excellency is pleaſed to entertain of us, and to convince your Excellency, that the ſupport of the honour of the crown, and the juſt rights and liberties of the ſubjects, are the great objects of our deliberations.

His Majeſty's paternal care of us in providing for the impartial adminiſtration of juſtice, by ſecuring to the judges the enjoyment of their offices and appointments during their good behaviour, is fully proved, by his being graciouſly pleaſed to recommend to us the framing ſuch laws as may tend to that ſalutary purpoſe: And we have an entire reliance on your Excellency's aſſurance, that you will co-operate with us in ſuch laws as may beſt promote the effectual and expeditious diſtribution of juſtice: thoſe great objects of all well-conſtituted governments, and on which the happineſs and proſperity of ſociety ſo greatly depend.

We ſhall always moſt ſenſibly feel whatever may contribute to the domeſtic happineſs of our moſt amiable Sovereign, and his illuſtrious conſort; and we therefore reflect, with the utmoſt pleaſure, on the increaſe of his Majeſty's family, by the birth of a Princeſs Royal.

Sen-

Senſible of thoſe impreſſions of humanity and tenderneſs, which muſt affect his Majeſty on the recent and melancholy event of the death of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, we beg leave to aſſure your Excellency it adds greatly to that concern which we ſhall always feel on any diminution of his illuſtrious family; but which muſt moſt ſenſibly affect us, when we recollect that his Royal Highneſs's many eminent virtues had ſo juſtly endeared him to his Majeſty and all his ſubjects.

Your Excellency's warm recommendation of the ſupport of our Proteſtant charter ſchools, and your attention to whatever may contribute to the encouragement and extenſion of our linen manufacture, fully convince us, that with the government of Ireland your Excellency has adopted the true and real intereſt of it; and we eſteem it a particular inſtance of his Majeſty's goodneſs to us, that he has intruſted the government of this kingdom to your Excellency, who is deſcended from a nobleman who ſo eminently ſupported the intereſt of his illuſtrious houſe, on which our happineſs entirely depends, and who has himſelf ſo greatly contributed to the extenſion of his Majeſty's dominions in America.

Convinced by the experience of his Majeſty's goodneſs to us, we entirely depend on his gracious diſpoſition to conſent to all ſuch laws as ſhall be for the welfare and true intereſt of his kingdom; and fully aſſured, that your Excellency will concur with us in every thing that may promote the public good and our happineſs and proſperity, we, on our parts, think it our duty to aſſure your Excellency, that we ſhall uſe our beſt endeavours to render your Excellency's adminiſtration eaſy and honourable.

His Excellency's anſwer.

I return my thanks to your Lordſhips for this affectionate addreſs, and for the very obliging manner in which you expreſs your good opinion of me: I will always endeavour to preſerve it, by making his Majeſty's ſervice, and the intereſt of this kingdom, the objects of my utmoſt care and attention.

The humble addreſs of the houſe of Commons to his Excellency.

May it pleaſe your Excellency.

WE his majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the Commons of Ireland in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to attend your Excellency with our ſincere thanks for your moſt excellent ſpeech from the throne, and to expreſs our ſatisfaction in his Majeſty's affectionate regard for the proſperity of this kingdom, ſo warmly ſhewn by the appointment of a chief governor, who deſcended from anceſtors diſtinguiſhed by their inviolable attachment to the cauſe of liberty, and the great ſupport of it, the ſucceſſion in the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover, inherits the ſame principles, and ſteadily adheres to the ſame ſentiments.

When we reflect on the important ſervices and great military experience of your Excellency for many years in different parts of the globe, and on your happy ſucceſs in raiſing the fame and extending the dominions of Great Britain; when we now ſee the ſword of juſtice entruſted to the

ſame

ſame perſon, who has conſtantly uſed the ſword of war for the honour of his ſovereign and the glory of his country, we muſt look up to your Excellency with the higheſt expectation and confidence. And when we recollect the conſiderable ſhare, which you have taken in planning and carrying into execution in England, an effectual national militia, we cannot but acknowledge that the civil power could not be more ſafely or uſefully delegated, than to your Excellency.

Happy in uniting a paſſion for glory with a love for the laws, and zeal for the ſecurity of the conſtitution, your Excellency has given us a moſt favourable preſage of your future adminiſtration, by your early attention to the impartial diſtribution of juſtice: and we ſee with joy and veneration the warm regard and concern which animate his Majeſty's royal breaſt, for the ſecurity of the rights and liberties of his faithful ſubjects of Ireland, in his Majeſty's gracious recommendation to us to make a proper proviſion for ſecuring the judges in the enjoyment of their offices and appointments during their good behaviour; a work which we ſhall proceed upon with the moſt grateful ſenſe of his Majeſty's paternal affection for our welfare, as a ſecurity long and ardently wiſhed for in this kingdom, to the religion, the laws, the liberties and properties of the ſubject; the accompliſhment of which will be a ſtrong mark of his Majeſty's juſt confidence in us, and will remain an honourable memorial of your Excellency's adminiſtration.

We ſhall chearfully concur in granting ſuch ſupplies, as the neceſſary ſupport of government, and ſafety of this kingdom, ſhall require.

The Proteſtant charter ſchools well deſerve our conſtant aſſiſtance, as great ſources of induſtry, virtue, and true religion; and we ſhall eſteem ourſelves peculiarly happy in diſtinguiſhing your Excellency's adminiſtration by ſo ſingular a benefit to the linen manufacture of this kingdom, as the prevention of foreigners from interfering in any article of that important branch of our trade.

But moſt particularly we beg leave to make our moſt ſincere acknowledgments for your Excellency's declarations of his Majeſty's gracious diſpoſition to conſent to all ſuch laws as ſhall be for the welfare and true intereſt of Ireland, and of your own warm wiſhes to concur in every thing that may promote the public good.

Fully confident from theſe aſſurances, that this nation will, under your Excellency's government, be made happy in the acquiſition of every law, which can promote the honour of the crown, and advance the happineſs and proſperity of the people of Ireland; we, on our parts, ſhall make it our ſtudy to contribute every thing in our power to the eaſe, the honour, and the dignity of your Excellency's adminiſtration.

His Excellency's anſwer.

I am extremely obliged to the houſe of Commons for the very favourable opinion which they entertain of me. I will endeavour to merit the continuance of it by exerting my utmoſt endeavours to promote the ſervice of the crown, and the true intereſt of this kingdom.

CHA-

CHARACTERS.

General Character of the Welſh, as it was in the time of Henry the Second; taken from Lord Lyttelton's Hiſtory of that Prince, and by him principally extracted from the writings of Giraldus Cambrenſis, a celebrated contemporary Hiſtorian.

HE tells us, that not only the nobility and gentry, but the whole people of Wales, were univerſally addicted to arms: that they gave no attention to commerce, navigation, or mechanical arts, and but little to agriculture; depending for ſuſtenance chiefly on their cattle; and diſliking, or rather diſdaining, any labour, except the toils of war and hunting, in which from their infancy they trained themſelves up with unwearied alacrity; military exerciſes, or the ſevereſt fatigues in the woods and mountains, being their conſtant diverſions in time of peace. Their bodies were naturally not robuſt; but, by this manner of life, they became exceedingly active, hardy, and dextrous in the uſe of their arms, and ever ready to take them up when occaſion required it. To fight for their country, and loſe their lives in defence of its honour and liberty, was their chief pride: but to die in their beds they thought diſgraceful.

A very honourable teſtimony was given to their valour by King Henry the Second, in a letter to the Greek Emperor, Emanuel Comnenus. This prince having deſired that an account might be ſent him of all that was moſt remarkable in the iſland of Britain, Henry, in anſwer to that requeſt, was pleaſed to take notice, among other particulars, of the extraordinary courage and fierceneſs of the Welſh, "who were not afraid to fight unarmed with enemies armed at all points, willingly ſhedding their blood in the cauſe of their country, and purchaſing glory at the expence of their lives." But theſe words muſt not be taken in too ſtrict a ſenſe, as if they had abſolutely worn no armour: for they uſed ſmall and light targets, which were commonly made of hides, and ſometimes of iron: but, except their breaſts, which theſe guarded, all the reſt of their bodies was left defenceleſs: nor did they cover their heads with caſques, or helmets; ſo that in compariſon of the Engliſh, or other nations of Europe, they might be called "unarmed." Their offenſive weapons were arrows, and long pikes, or ſpears, which were of great uſe againſt cavalry; and theſe they, occaſionally, either puſhed with, or darted; in which exerciſe the whole nation was wonderfully ex-

pert; but more eſpecially the men of North-Wales, who had pikes ſo ſtrong and well-pointed, that they would pierce through an iron coat of mail; but thoſe of South-Wales, and particularly the province of Guent, or Monmouth, which was then a part of that kingdom, were accounted the beſt archers, not being inferior, in the uſe of the long bow, to the Normans themſelves.

The common people fought on foot; but ſome of the nobility began now to ride upon horſes bred in their own country, which were high-mettled, and ſwift, but not very ſtrong; and even theſe gentlemen would frequently diſmount, both in combating, and when they fled; the nature of their country, as well as their diſcipline, being better adapted to foot than horſe. Their firſt onſet was terrible; but, if ſtoutly reſiſted, they ſoon gave ground, and could never be rallied; in which they reſemble other barbarous nations, and particularly the Britons and Celts, their forefathers. Yet, though defeated and diſperſed, they were not ſubdued; but preſently returned to make war again upon thoſe from whom they had fled, by ambuſcades and night marches, or by ſudden aſſaults, when they were leaſt expected; in which their agility, ſpirit, and impetuoſity, made up what they wanted in weight and firmneſs: ſo that, although they were eaſily overcome in a battle by regular troops, they were with great difficulty vanquiſhed in a war. The ſame vivacity which animated their hearts inſpired their tongues. They were of quick and ſharp wit; naturally eloquent, and ready in ſpeaking, without any awe or concern, before their ſuperiors, or in public aſſemblies. But from this fire in their tempers they were all very paſſionate, vindictive, and ſanguinary in their reſentments: nor was their revenge only ſudden and violent, when they received any perſonal injury or affront, or while the ſting of it was recent in their minds; but it was frequently carried back, by a falſe ſenſe of honour, even to very remote and traditional quarrels, in which any of their family had been ever engaged. For not only the nobles and gentry, but even the loweſt among them, had each by heart his own genealogy, together with which he retained a conſtant remembrance of every injury, diſgrace, or loſs, his forefathers had ſuffered, and thought it would be degeneracy not to reſent it as perſonal to himſelf. So that the vanity of this people, with regard to their families, ſerved to perpetuate implacable feuds, and a kind of civil war among private men; beſides the diſſenſions it excited among their kings and chief lords, which proved the deſtruction of their national union, and conſequently broke their national ſtrength.

They were in their nature very light and inconſtant, eaſily impelled to any undertaking, even the moſt wicked and dangerous, and as eaſily induced to quit it again; deſirous of change, and not to be held by any bonds of faith or oaths, which they violated without ſcruple or ſenſe of ſhame, both in public and private tranſactions. To plunder and rob was ſcarce accounted diſhonourable among them, even when committed againſt

againſt their own countrymen, much leſs againſt foreigners. They hardly ever married without a prior cohabitation; it being cuſtomary for parents to let out their daughters to young men upon trial, for a ſum of money paid down, and under a penalty, agreed upon between them, if the girls were returned. The people in general, and more eſpecially their princes and nobles, gave themſelves up to exceſſive lewdneſs; but were remarkably temperate in eating and drinking, conſtantly faſting till evening, and then making a ſober meal; unleſs when they were entertained at the tables of foreigners, where they indulged themſelves immoderately both in liquor and food, paſſing at once from their habit of abſtinence to the moſt riotous and brutal exceſs: but, nevertheleſs, when they came home, they returned with great eaſe to their former courſe of life; and none of their nobles were led by the example of the Engliſh to run out their fortunes by a profuſeneſs in keeping a table. No kind of luxury was yet introduced into their manner of living; not even a decent convenience, or neatneſs. They ſeemed to be proud of not wanting thoſe delicacies which other nations are proud of enjoying. Their kings indeed, and a few of their principal nobles, had built ſome caſtles in imitation of the Engliſh; but moſt of their gentry ſtill continued to dwell in huts made of wattles, and ſituated in ſolitudes, by the ſides of the woods, as moſt convenient for hunting and paſture, or for a retreat in time of war. They had no gardens, nor orchards, nor any improvements about their dwellings, which they commonly changed every year, and removed to other places (as the Britons and Celts, their anceſtors, had been accuſtomed to do) for the ſake of freſh paſture and a new ſupply of game.

Their furniture was as ſimple and mean as their houſes, ſuch as might anſwer the mere neceſſities of groſs and uncivilized nature. The only elegance among them was muſic, which they were ſo fond of, that in every family there generally were ſome who played on the harp; and ſkill in that inſtrument was valued by them more than all other knowledge. This greatly contributed to keep up that chearfulneſs, which was more univerſal and conſtant in the Welſh than in the Saxons or Normans.

Notwithſtanding their poverty, they were ſo hoſpitable that every man's houſe was open to all; and thus no wants were felt by the moſt indigent, nor was there a beggar in the nation. When any ſtranger, or traveller, came to a houſe, he uſed no other ceremony than, at his firſt entrance, to deliver his arms into the hands of the maſter, who thereupon offered to waſh his feet; which if he accepted, it was underſtood to ſignify his intention of ſtaying there all night; and none who did ſo was refuſed. Whatever the number or quality of their gueſts might happen to be, the maſter and miſtreſs of the houſe waited on them, and would not ſit down at table with them, or taſte any food, till they had ſupped. The fire was placed in the middle of the room, on each ſide of which was ſpread a coarſe bed of hemp over a thin mat of ruſhes, where the whole

family and their guests slept together, without even a curtain betwixt them. Their feet lay always next to the fire, which, being kept burning all night, supplied the want of bed cloaths; for they had no covering but the cloaths they wore in the day.

It was customary among them to receive in a morning large companies of young men, who, following no occupation but arms, whenever they were not in action, strolled over the country, and entered into any house that they found in their way; where they were entertained, till the evening, with the music of the harp, and free conversation with the young women of the family. Upon which Giraldus Cambrensis makes this remark, that of all the nations in the universe none were more jealous of their women than the Irish, or less than the Welsh. In other respects their manners so nearly agreed, when that author wrote, as to discover the marks of a Celtic origin common to both.

One is surprised in observing how absolutely the Britons, after their retreat into Wales, lost all the culture they had received from the Romans, and, instead of refining the ancient inhabitants of that part of the island, relapsed themselves into their rude and barbarous manners. This is the more wonderful, because the Latin tongue, and no contemptible share of its learning, were long preserved in their public schools, and continued, though indeed in a declining state, even down to the times of which I write. They had also retained the profession of the christian religion, but debased with gross superstitions: Giraldus Cambrensis informs us, that they paid, in his days, a more devout reverence to churches and churchmen, to the relics of saints, to crosses, and to bells, than any other nation. Whenever any of them happened to meet a monk, or other ecclesiastic, they instantly threw down their arms, and, bowing their heads, implored his blessing. When they undertook a journey into any foreign country, or when they married, or were enjoined by their confessors any public penance, they paid a full tenth of all their goods, which they called "the great tythe," in the proportion of two parts to the church wherein they had been baptized, and one to their bishop. How far they carried their respect to asylums and sanctuaries, has already been mentioned. The excess of their superstition with relation to this point is censured by Giraldus Cambrensis himself, as great a bigot as he was; and it certainly must have been one principal cause, why so many murders and other crimes were committed among them. Their hermits were celebrated for severer austerities than any others in Europe, the vehemence of their temper carrying their virtues, as well as vices, into extremes. Pilgrimages to Rome were their favourite mode of devotion, though they had many saints of their own nation, whose shrines they adored with the blindest superstition. In short, their religion, for the most part, was so different from genuine christianity, that either it was prejudicial to civil society, or did it no good.

Character of the Engliſh and Normans. From the ſame.

THERE is a remarkable paſſage in William of Malmſbury upon the different characters of the Engliſh and Normans. He ſays, that, before the latter had obtained poſſeſſion of England, learning and religion were brought to ſo low a ſtate in that kingdom, that moſt of the clergy could hardly read divine ſervice; and if, happily, any one of them underſtood grammar, he was admired and wondered at by the reſt as a prodigy. The Engliſh nobility were very deficient in the external duties of piety; it being cuſtomary among them, even for thoſe who were married, to hear matins and maſs ſaid to them in their bed-chambers, before they were up, and as faſt as the prieſt could poſſibly hurry them over; inſtead of attending divine ſervice, with proper ſolemnity, in churches or chapels. Many of them were guilty of the unnatural inhumanity of ſelling their female ſlaves, whom they kept as their concubines, when they were big with child by them, either to public proſtitution, or to perpetual ſlavery in foreign lands. They were alſo univerſally addicted to drunkenneſs, and continued over their cups whole days and nights, keeping open houſe, and ſpending all the income of their eſtates in riotous feaſts, where they ate and drank to exceſs, without any elegant or magnificent luxury. Their houſes were generally ſmall and mean, their garments plain, and ſuccinct: they cut their hair ſhort, and ſhaved their faces, except the upper lip; wearing no ornament, but heavy bracelets of gold on their arms, and painted figures that were burnt into the ſkin, on ſome parts of their bodies. The Normans on the contrary (as the ſame author informs us) affected great finery and pomp in their cloaths; and were delicate in their food, but without any exceſs. They ſpent little in houſe-keeping, but were very expenſive and magnificent in their buildings, making that their chief pride, and introducing a new and better mode of architecture into this iſland. Nor did they only diſplay this magnificence in their own private houſes; but embelliſhed all the kingdom with churches and convents more ſplendid and elegant than thoſe of the Engliſh. They are alſo commended, by the abovementioned hiſtorian, for eſtabliſhing here a more decent and more regular form of religion: but yet it is certain, that, by admitting new doctrines of popery, to which the Anglo-Saxon church had never aſſented, they further corrupted the purity of the Chriſtian faith in this iſland. He adds, that they were faithful to their liege lords, if they were not ill uſed; but that, on occaſion of the lighteſt offence given to them, they broke their allegiance; that being accuſtomed to a military life, and hardly knowing how to live without war, they made it with ardour; but, if they could not ſucceed by open force, they underſtood equally well how to employ both fraud and bribery: whereas the Engliſh had only a raſh and impetuous valour. He likewiſe tells us, that the Normans were apt to ſell juſtice; that they were full of emulation, ambition, and envy; that they frequently

themſelves oppreſſed their vaſſals, but bravely defended them againſt all others; willingly intermixed with the people they had conquered, and of all nations in the world were the kindeſt to foreigners, putting them upon an equal foot with themſelves, if they came to ſettle among them.

Such is the picture drawn by William of Malmſbury of the Engliſh and Normans compared and contraſted together: and no writer of thoſe times was better qualified than he to form a true judgment of their good and ill qualities, or more impartial between them; for he had very good ſenſe, with much knowledge of the world, and was equally related in blood to both nations. Nevertheleſs the diverſity, which he has obſerved in their manners, did not remain till the times in which he wrote. He tells us himſelf, that the Engliſh ſoon accommodated themſelves to thoſe of the Normans, after they had been forced to ſubmit to their government, except in one article, namely, their temperance in eating and drinking; but, inſtead of learning that, they communicated to them their own habits of drunkenneſs and immoderate feaſting, which continued for many ages the national vices of their common poſterity.

In weighing the merits of each people, as here deſcribed, it will be found that the Normans were greatly ſuperior to the Engliſh in politeneſs and knowledge; and it may therefore be thought, that, by a mixture with them, the latter received ſuch improvements, as were a ſufficient compenſation for the many evils brought upon them in other reſpects. It muſt alſo be confeſſed, that, ſo long as the Anglo-Saxons were maſters of England, that kingdom was of no account in the ſyſtem of Europe; but grew to have weight and authority on the continent under the government of the Normans, both from the dominions which the princes of that race poſſeſſed in France, and from their active ambition, which, ſeconded by the enterpriſing and warlike diſpoſition of all their nobility, rendered the Engliſh name reſpected and illuſtrious abroad. But whether this honour was not purchaſed too dear, by the loſs of that peace, which the ſituation of England, eſpecially if united with Scotland and Wales, might have ſecured to it under the government and iſland-policy of the Saxons, may well be diſputed. Beſides the conſtant expence of blood and treaſure, one great miſchief, occaſioned by it, was the taking off the attention of many of our kings from the important objects of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Yet, on the other hand, it is certain that foreign wars, by exerciſing the valour, increaſe the ſtrength of a nation, which, remaining long unemployed, is very apt to decay, and ſink into an infirm and effeminate ſoftneſs; particularly where the people are much addicted to commerce; the mercantile ſpirit prevailing over the military more than is conſiſtent with the ſafety or virtue of a ſtate. To keep up the energy of both theſe ſpirits in a proper degree, and without prejudice to each other, is a very important and very difficult part of political wiſdom, which has been performed in few

few governments, either ancient or modern.

Character of Harold. From the ſame.

HE ſo conducted the affairs of the kingdom, that he made the reign of a very weak prince moſt happy to the Engliſh; victory attended his arms on the borders; liberty and peace were maintained by him at home. There was much dignity, gracefulneſs, and ſtrength in his perſon; he had a courage and reſolution which nothing could daunt, an eaſy flow of natural eloquence, animated by a lively agreeable wit, and elevation of ſentiments with popular manners. Beſides all the luſtre he drew from his political and military talents, in which he had no equal among his own countrymen, his character was embelliſhed, and rendered more amiable, by a generous ſpirit, and a heart in which humanity tempered ambition. It does not appear that his virtues were diſgraced by the mixture of any vice or weakneſs, which could diſhonour him in the eyes of the public. Upon the whole, he was worthy of the crown he aſpired to; which is confeſt even by writers no way diſpoſed to judge of him too favourably, and ſtill better proved by all his behaviour after he was on the throne.

His own brother Toſti, a man given up to the worſt paſſions, and capable of gratifying them by the worſt means, was the firſt enemy who diſturbed the peace of his realm. This lord, in the reign of Edward the Confeſſor, had been earl of Northumberland, and by many grievous oppreſſions had ſo irritated the people, that, riſing in arms, they drove him out. Harold, having been ſent with a commiſſion from the king to ſuppreſs this revolt, was told by the Northumbrians, "that they were born and bred freemen, and could not endure a tyrannical governor, but had learnt from their anceſtors to ſecure to themſelves either liberty or death." Such a language, by a man of a deſpotic temper, would certainly have been deemed an unpardonable aggravation of their offence; but Harold reſpected it, admitted their plea, and even rendered himſelf their advocate with the king, (to whom his entreaties were commands) that they might have for their governor the perſon they deſired, Morcar, the younger brother of Edwin earl of Mercia, whoſe father and grandfather had been dangerous enemies to his father and himſelf: a moſt laudable act, and which ſhews that he was worthy to rule a free kingdom! It may indeed be thought, that policy joined with generoſity and with juſtice, in dictating to him this extraordinary conduct: for, beſides the hearts of the people, he gained by it a connexion with two powerful nobles, who never forgot the obligation, and whoſe warm adherence to him muſt have greatly contributed to raiſe him to the throne.

Character of William the Firſt. From the ſame.

THE character of this prince has ſeldom been ſet in it's true light; ſome eminent writers having

having been dazzled ſo much by the more ſhining parts of it, that they have hardly ſeen his faults; while others, out of a ſtrong deteſtation of tyranny, have been unwilling to allow him the praiſe he deſerves.

He may with juſtice be ranked among the greateſt generals any age has produced. There was united in him activity, vigilance, intrepidity, caution, great force of judgment, and never-failing preſence of mind. He was very ſtrict in his diſcipline, and kept his ſoldiers in perfect obedience; yet preſerved their affection. Having been, from his very childhood, continually in war, and at the head of armies, he joined to all the capacity that genius could give, all the knowledge and ſkill that experience could teach, and was a perfect maſter of the military art, as it was practiſed in the times when he lived. His conſtitution enabled him to endure any hardſhips; and very few were equal to him in perſonal ſtrength: which was an excellence of more importance than it is now, from the manner of fighting then in uſe. It is ſaid of him, that none but himſelf could bend his bow. His courage was heroic, and he poſſeſſed it, not only in the field, but (which is more uncommon) in the cabinet; attempting great things with means that to other men appeared unequal to ſuch undertakings, and ſteadily proſecuting what he had boldly reſolved; being never diſturbed or diſheartened with difficulties, in the purſuit of his enterprizes; but having that noble vigour of mind, which, inſtead of bending to oppoſition, riſes againſt it, and ſeems to have a power of controuling and governing fortune itſelf.

Nor was he leſs ſuperior to pleaſure than to fear. No luxury ſoftened him, no riot diſordered, no ſloth relaxed. It helped not a little to maintain the high reſpect his ſubjects had for him, that the majeſty of his character was never let down by any incontinence or indecent exceſs. His temperance and his chaſtity were conſtant guards, that ſecured his mind from all weakneſs, ſupported its dignity, and kept it always, as it were, on the throne. Through his whole life he had no partner of his bed but his queen: a moſt extraordinary virtue in one who had lived, even from his earlieſt youth, amidſt all the licence of camps, the allurements of a court, and the ſeductions of ſovereign power! Had he kept his oaths to his people as well as he did his marriage vow, he would have been the beſt of kings; but he indulged other paſſions, of a worſe nature, and infinitely more detrimental to the public, than thoſe he reſtrained. A luſt of power which no regard to juſtice could limit, the moſt unrelenting cruelty, and the moſt inſatiable avarice, poſſeſſed his ſoul. It is true indeed, that among many acts of extreme inhumanity ſome ſhining inſtances of great clemency may be produced, that were either effects of his policy, which taught him this method of acquiring friends, or of his magnanimity, which made him ſlight a weak and ſubdued enemy; ſuch as was Edgar Atheling, in whom he found neither ſpirit nor talents able to contend with him for the crown. But where he had no advantage

vantage nor pride in forgiving, his nature diſcovered itſelf to be utterly void of all ſenſe of compaſſion; and ſome barbarities, which he committed, exceeded the bounds, that even tyrants and conquerors preſcribe to themſelves.

Moſt of our ancient hiſtorians give him the character of a very religious prince; but his religion was, after the faſhion of theſe times, belief without examination, and devotion without piety. It was a religion that prompted him to endow monaſteries, and at the ſame time allowed him to pillage kingdoms; that threw him on his knees before a relic or croſs, but ſuffered him unreſtrained to trample upon the liberties and rights of mankind.

As to his wiſdom in government, of which ſome modern writers have ſpoken very highly, he was indeed ſo far wiſe, that, through a long, unquiet reign, he knew how to ſupport oppreſſion by terror, and employ the propereſt means for the carrying on a very iniquitous and violent adminiſtration. But that which alone deſerves the name of wiſdom in the character of a king, the maintaining of authority by the exerciſe of thoſe virtues which make the happineſs of his people, was what, with all his abilities, he does not appear to have poſſeſt. Nor did he excel in thoſe ſoothing and popular arts, which ſometimes change the complexion of a tyranny, and give it a fallacious appearance of freedom. His government was harſh and deſpotic, violating even the principles of that conſtitution which he himſelf had eſtabliſhed. Yet ſo far he performed the duty of a ſovereign, that he took care to maintain a good police in his realm; curbing licentiouſneſs with a ſtrong hand, which, in the tumultuous ſtate of his government, was a great and difficult work. How well he performed it we may learn even from the teſtimony of a contemporary Saxon hiſtorian, who ſays, that during his reign a man might have travelled in perfect ſecurity all over the kingdom with his boſom full of gold; nor durſt any kill another in revenge of the greateſt offences, nor offer violence to the chaſtity of a woman. But it was a poor compenſation, that the highways were ſafe, when the courts of juſtice were dens of thieves; and when almoſt every man in authority, or in office, uſed his power to oppreſs and pillage the people. The king himſelf did not only tolerate, but encourage, ſupport, and even ſhare theſe extortions. Though the greatneſs of the ancient landed eſtate of the crown, and the feudal profits to which he legally was entitled, rendered him one of the richeſt monarchs in Europe, he was not content with all that opulence: but by authoriſing the ſheriffs, who collected his revenues in the ſeveral counties, to practiſe the moſt grievous vexations and abuſes, for the raiſing of them higher by a perpetual auction of the crown lands; ſo that none of his tenants could be ſecure of poſſeſſion, if any other would come and offer more; by various iniquities in the court of exchequer, which was entirely Norman; by forfeitures wrongfully taken; and laſtly, by arbitrary and illegal taxations, he drew

drew into his treaſury much too great a proportion of the wealth of his kingdom.

It muſt however be owned, that if his avarice was inſatiably and unjuſtly rapacious, it was not meanly parſimonious, nor of that ſordid kind, which brings on a prince diſhonour and contempt. He ſupported the dignity of his crown with a decent magnificence; and though he never was laviſh, he ſometimes was liberal, more eſpecially to his ſoldiers and to the church. But looking on money as a neceſſary means of maintaining and encreaſing power, he deſired to accumulate as much as he could, rather, perhaps, from an ambitious than a covetous nature: at leaſt his avarice was ſubſervient to his ambition, and he laid up wealth in his coffers, as he did arms in his magazines, to be drawn out, when any proper occaſion required it, for the defence and enlargement of his dominions.

Upon the whole, he had many great qualities, but few virtues: and, if thoſe actions that moſt particularly diſtinguiſh the man or the king are impartially conſidered, we ſhall find, that in his character there is much to admire, but ſtill more to abhor.

Character of William Rufus. From the ſame.

THE character of this king has been too much depreciated by many hiſtorians. It was, no doubt, very faulty; yet, notwithſtanding all his faults, he was a great man. In magnanimity, the firſt of royal virtues, no prince ever excelled him, and few have equalled. For proof of this I ſhall here relate ſome particular facts, which I could not ſo properly mention in giving a general view of this reign. While he was beſieging Mont St. Michel, a fortreſs in Normandy, which was held againſt him by Henry, his younger brother, a ſmall party of horſe belonging to the garriſon approached near his camp; at the ſight of which, being tranſported by the ardour of his courage, he furiouſly advanced before his own troops, and charged into the midſt of them. His horſe was killed under him, and the ſoldier, who had diſmounted him, not knowing who he was, dragged him by the foot on the ground, and was going to ſlay him, if he had not ſtopt the blow, by ſaying to him, with a tone of command, not ſupplication, "Raſcal, lift me up: I am the king of England." At theſe words, all the ſoldiers of prince Henry, his brother, were ſtruck with awe, and reverently raiſing him up from the earth brought him another horſe. By this time his own forces were come to his ſuccour in ſuch numbers, that the little band of the enemy could make no reſiſtance, much leſs carry off the king as their priſoner. That prince, ſeeing this, vaulted into the ſaddle, and caſting his eyes, which ſparkled with fire, all round about him, aſked, who it was that unhorſed him? For ſome time all were ſilent: but at laſt, he who did it anſwered. "It was I, who did not ſuppoſe you to be a king, but an ordinary knight." "By the face of our Lord," replied William with a ſmile, "thou ſhalt henceforth be my ſoldier, and receive from me the recompenſe

penſe thy valour deſerves." But the anſwer he made to a bravado of the earl of la Fleſche is a ſtill nobler inſtance of his magnanimity. That lord, his competitor for the earldom of Maine, being taken priſoner by him, and received with an inſult, ſaid, with a ſpirit ſuperior to fortune, "An accident has made me your captive; but could I recover my liberty, I know what I ſhould do."—"You know what you ſhould do!" replied the king: "Begone! I give you leave to do your utmoſt; and I ſwear to you, that if you overcome me hereafter, I will aſk no return from you for having thus ſet you free." With theſe words he diſmiſſed him: an action of heroiſm that would have done honour to Cæſar, whoſe ſoul (ſays one of the beſt of our ancient hiſtorians) ſeems to have tranſmigrated into this monarch. He likewiſe acted and ſpoke in the ſpirit of that Roman, when, from his ardour to relieve the city of Mans, beſieged by the earl of la Fleſche, he paſſed the ſea in a violent tempeſt, ſaying to the ſailors who warned him of the danger, "that he never had heard of any king having been drowned." Nor did he leſs reſemble Cæſar in liberality, than in courage, and greatneſs of mind. He gave without meaſure, but never without choice; diſtinguiſhing merit, and fixing it in his ſervice by means of his bounty; that merit eſpecially which was the moſt neceſſary, to ſupport his ambition, eminent valour, and military talents. In the magnificence of his court and buildings he greatly exceeded any king of that age. But, though his profuſeneſs aroſe from a noble and generous nature, it muſt be accounted rather a vice than a virtue; as, in order to ſupply the unbounded extent of it, he was very rapacious. If he had lived long, his expences would have undone him: for he had not, as Cæſar had, the treaſures of the world to ſupport his extravagance; and it had brought him ſome years before his death into ſuch difficulties, that even if his temper had not been deſpotic, his neceſſities would have made him a tyrant.

His ſoul was all fire, perpetually in action, undaunted with danger, unwearied with application, purſuing pleaſure with as much ardour as buſineſs, but never ſacrificing buſineſs to pleaſure; addicted to women, yet without any tenderneſs or fixed attachment, rather from a ſpirit of debauchery than from the paſſion of love. He had many concubines, but no miſtreſs; and never would marry, for fear of ſubjecting himſelf to any reſtraint.

Nevertheleſs, the vivacity of his temper and the quickneſs of his parts were balanced by the ſolidity and the ſtrength of his judgment: ſo that, although he was very eager in all his purſuits, he directed them with great prudence, excelling ſtill more in policy than in arms. He had not indeed any tincture of learning; but he had ſtudied mankind, and knew them well, under all diſguiſes; covering himſelf with a deep diſſimulation, where it was neceſſary, and the more dangerous in it from an appearance of openneſs, heat, and paſſion; imperious and abſolute, ſo as to endure no contradiction or ſtop to his will, when he had power

power enough to enforce obedience, but pliant and ſoothing, when he wanted that power: in public maintaining his majeſty, not only with ſtate, but with pride; yet in private, among his friends, and thoſe whom he admitted to a familiarity with him, eaſy, good-humoured, and often more witty than is proper for a king.

His perſon was diſagreeable, and his elocution ungraceful: notwithſtanding which imperfections he carried all points he had at heart, more by the arts of inſinuation and addreſs than by force.

Conſidering how much he owed to the clergy in obtaining his crown, it is no little proof of uncommon abilities, that he wore it without any dependance upon them, and entirely ſubjected their power to his own, But not content to govern the church, he tyrannized over it, as he did over the ſtate. Nor would he conſtrain himſelf to that outward ſhew of reverence for eccleſiaſtics, which his father had always paid to them, even while he oppreſſed them: and this was certainly one principal cauſe, why the monks, who have tranſmitted his character to us, accuſe him ſo heavily of being irreligious. That all the ſtrange ſtories, related by thoſe hiſtorians, of his open impiety, are ſtrictly true, it is hard to believe; becauſe one would imagine that his good ſenſe alone muſt have taught him ſome reſpect for the forms of religion, in an age which demanded that, and demanded no more. Yet though the charge may have been aggravated, it was not wholly groundleſs. His mind was too penetrating not to ſee the depravity of what was then called religion, and his heart was too corrupt to ſeek for a better. We are told indeed, that, in a dangerous fit of ſickneſs, he expreſt remorſe for the offences of his paſt life, and promiſed amendment; which ſhews at leaſt that he had in him no ſettled principle of abſolute infidelity: but he had not any ſuch ſteady ſentiments of faith or piety, as could be a reſtraint on his paſſions. So that the impreſſions made in his illneſs were ſoon effaced by the return of his health. There was alſo a levity and petulance in his wit, which often gave his converſation an air of profaneneſs beyond what he ſeriouſly thought or meant. He paid ſo little reſpect to the oaths he had taken, that he ſeemed to conſider them as mere forms of ſtate, or arts which policy might employ and diſpenſe with at pleaſure. All his vices were public, and he did infinitely more harm by the bad example he gave, and the indulgence he ſhewed to the enormities of others, than by his own. He not only tolerated, but encouraged in his court, and (what was yet worſe) in his army, the moſt unbridled profligacy of manners; relaxing all diſcipline, civil or military; and hardly puniſhing any crimes, but rebellions and treaſons againſt himſelf, or the breach of the foreſt laws, which had been made by his father, and of which he had ſolemnly promiſed a remiſſion to his ſubjects. Theſe he enforced with a cruel rigour; but other offences were either winked at, or the offender bought off the puniſhment. So that the miſery of England was com-

complete in this reign; for the nation was now a prey to licentiouſneſs, as much as to tyranny, ſuffering at once the diſorders of anarchy, and the oppreſſions of arbitrary power. The army of William the Firſt had been under the curb of a ſtrict diſcipline; but that of William Rufus, like a wild beaſt unchained, was let looſe to infeſt his peaceful ſubjects. The young nobility wete bred up in debauchery; luxurious, effeminate, and guilty even of luſts which nature abhors; deſpiſers of order, law, morality, and no leſs proud of their vices than of their birth. But happily the life of this prince was too ſhort to extend the corruption to the body of the people; and therefore the commonwealth recovered again, when the ſucceeding monarch applied to it ſuch remedies of wholeſome ſeverity, as the diſtempers contracted by it required.

Character of Louis le Gros. From the ſame.

ON the firſt of Auguſt in the year eleven hundred and thirty-ſeven, died at Paris Louis the ſixth, ſurnamed le Gros, from the largeneſs and corpulence of his perſon. A much nobler ſurname might have been properly given to him from the qualities of his mind: He deſerved to have been called the Good, or the Juſt. His whole reign was paſſed in conſtant ſtruggles with the inſolence, the licentiouſneſs, and the tyranny of his nobles, againſt whoſe oppreſſions he royally defended his people, maintaining his laws by his arms, and permitting no crimes to eſcape his juſtice. Thus far he much reſembled our Henry the firſt: but in policy he was not always a match for that king. Yet he deſerves no leſs eſteem: for in goodneſs of heart he was greatly his ſuperior, and had ſcarce any equal among the princes who reigned in his days. He loſt his health, and at laſt his life, by the fatigues he ſuſtained, in beſieging caſtle after caſtle, where any flagitious or turbulent perſon had broken or endangered the peace of his realm. Abbot Suger, his principal miniſter, tells us, that he would often lament the unhappy condition of human life, in which to *know* much and *act* much is ſeldom or never in our power together; adding, that if he had *known* in his youth, what he *knew* in his age, or could *act* in his age with the ſame vigour as he did in his youth, he ſhould have been able to conquer many kingdoms. Yet that hiſtorian affirms, that, even in the latter years of his reign, broken as he was with inceſſant toils, and heavy from a too corpulent habit of body, if any thing happened in any part of his kingdom, by which the royal majeſty was hurt or offended, he never ſuffered it to go unchaſtiſed. His dying words to his ſon were admirable. "Remember, *ſaid he*, and have it always before your eyes, that the royal authority is a public charge, of which you muſt render, after your death, a ſtrict account." In the year eleven hundred and thirty-one he had the misfortune to loſe his eldeſt ſon Philip, a very hopeful youth; who, while he was riding in the ſuburbs of Paris, was thrown down and killed, by a hog running ſuddenly under the feet of his horſe. The ſtrangeneſs of the accident em-

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bittered the loſs, and put the fortitude of the father to a terrible proof: but he bore it with the heroiſm of a good chriſtian and a great king. His grief did not hinder him from immediately thinking of the moſt proper meaſures to guard his people and family againſt the ill conſequences of this unhappy event. For, preſently afterwards, Innocent the ſecond holding a general council at Rheims, the afflicted monarch brought thither Louis, his ſecond ſon, who was under thirteen years old, and cauſed him, in the preſence of all the aſſembly, to be anointed and crowned king together with himſelf, by the hands of the pope, "in order (ſays Suger) to prevent the diſturbances which other competitors for the crown might excite:" remarkable words, which ſhew the reaſon of the practice eſtabliſhed in France of crowning the ſon during the life of the father, and prove that a regular courſe of hereditary ſucceſſion was not yet abſolutely ſettled in that kingdom, any more than in England.

Character and death of Prince Euſtace, ſon to King Stephen. From the ſame.

EUSTACE, who had collected a force ſufficient to take the field, marched out from Cambridge, a little before the feaſt of St. Laurence, intending to join the king, his father, at Ipſwich; or to attempt ſomething himſelf againſt the earl of Norfolk, whoſe power in thoſe countries was ſtill very great. When he came to St. Edmond's-bury, he demanded of the monks belonging to that convent, a ſum of money, to pay his men: but not obtaining any from them, he fell into a furious rage, and inſtantly leaving their houſe, commanded his ſoldiers who were in want of ſubſiſtence, to cut down the ripe corn all round the town, particularly what belonged to the abbey, and bring it into his camp. He had ſcarce ſeen this order executed, when he was ſeized with a burning fever and frenzy, of which he died in a ſhort time. It may well be preſumed, that his diſtemper procceded from the violent agitation his mind had been in, and from the heat of the weather, at that ſeaſon of the year: but the monks did not fail to ſuppoſe that it was a judgment of heaven upon him, for having ſacrilegiouſly plundered their fields. He was of a character to make his loſs regretted by none, who had any real concern for the good of the public. Yet his nature was not utterly void of all virtues; but it was miſerably depraved by a bad education. He had been bred, even from his cradle, amidſt the licentiouſneſs, cruelty, and impiety of a long civil war; without proper care, in thoſe to whoſe tuition his youth was committed, to preſerve him from the contagion of ſuch peſtilent times, by oppoſing good inſtructions to evil examples. As he grew up, he became diſſolute, fierce, and intractable. A low taſte of pleaſure carried him into mean company: ſo that he waſted a great part of his time with buffoons, and all the ſcum of a looſe court or diſorderly camp; which vile ſociety debaſed his mind, and corrupted his heart. Otherwiſe he might have been capable of doing great things: for he

he poſſeſſed, with the activity and courage of his father, a more determined reſolution; and diſcovered, in the earlieſt bloom of his youth, ſuch talents for war, as gained the admiration even of the oldeſt commanders. To his friends he was affable, courteous, and liberal; but his bounty was too often extended to perſons, whoſe only merit was ſerving his vices. Upon the whole, he ſeemed made to perpetuate the miſchiefs, that England endured under the reign of his father, and perhaps to encreaſe them.

Character of King Stephen. From the ſame.

THE valour of this king was much the moſt ſhining part of his character. In the field of battle he was a hero, though every where elſe an ordinary man. But even his military abilities were chiefly confined to the uſe of his ſword and battle-axe. The extent of his genius was not proportioned to a great plan of action; his foreſight was ſhort and imperfect, his diſcipline looſe, and his whole conduct in war that of an alert partiſan, rather than of a diſcreet and judicious commander.

He had in his nature ſome amiable virtues, as generoſity, clemency, and affability, which under the direction of wiſdom and juſtice, would have given him a place among the beſt of our kings: but for want of thoſe lights to guide and rule them, they were unworthily, weakly, and hurtfully employed. His mind was very active, and always puſhing him on to bold undertakings, in which he ſeldom proved ſucceſsful: for ſetting out wrong, and having left the ſtraight path of honour and virtue, he got into a labyrinth of perplexed and crooked meaſures, out of which he never afterwards could extricate himſelf, either with reputation or ſafety.

The times, and circumſtances, in which he was placed, required a ſteady, calm, and reſolute prudence: but he acted only by ſtarts, and from the violent impulſe of ſome preſent paſſion; always too eager for the object in view, and yet too lightly changing his courſe; too warm in his attachments, and too impetuous in his reſentments.

The guilt of his uſurpation was aggravated by perjury, and by the blackeſt ingratitude to his uncle, King Henry, from whom he had received ſuch obligations, as, to a mind endued with a right ſenſe of honour, would have been no leſs binding than the oaths he had taken. This was a ſtain on his character, which even the merit of a good government could not have effaced: but his was ſo bad, that it might have expelled a lawful king from an hereditary throne. Indeed the weakneſs of his title, and the too great obligations he had to the clergy in his election, were incumbrances that hung very heavy upon him, and the original cauſes of all his troubles. Yet againſt both theſe difficulties, uneaſy as they were, he might have found a reſource in the affection of his people. Henry the firſt, in the beginning of his reign, was no leſs indebted to the clergy than he, nor was his title more clear: notwithſtanding which he maintained himſelf in the throne, and kept the church in due obedience,

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by a government popular without meanneſs, and ſtrong without violence. But bribes and a ſtanding army of the moſt odious foreign mercenaries were the wretched ſupports, on which his ſucceſſor leaned, to ſecure a precarious and unnatural power. Inſtead of gradually trying to ſhake off the fetters, which the church had impoſed upon him at his acceſſion to the crown, by the proper and legal aſſiſtance of parliament, he was continually weakening the royal authority, by further conceſſions to the biſhops, in hopes of attaching them more firmly to his intereſts; and, when he ventured to quarrel with them, he did it in a manner, which hurt the privileges of his temporal barons no leſs than theirs, and made civil liberty appear to be intereſted in their defence. Thus he deſtroyed the only ground upon which he could ſtand, and changed the nature of the queſtion between him and Matilda, making her cauſe, and her ſon's, the cauſe of the nation, inſtead of a perſonal claim of inheritance.

His private life was better by far than his public conduct. He was a good huſband and kind father: but to his children, as well as to his friends, he was too kind, and took no care to reſtrain the vices of their youth; a fault, which is indeed very blameable in a king, becauſe of the miſchiefs it may afterwards bring upon his people.

He was remarkably free from ſuperſtition; a merit uncommon in that ignorant age, and ſeeming to indicate a ſtrength of underſtanding, which did not belong to him in any other reſpects. There is a ſtrange inconſiſtency in human nature! The greateſt minds often fall into weakneſſes, which the loweſt would be aſhamed of; and perſons of mean parts are exempt from certain follies, which very wiſe ones are enſlaved to! Nor did this ſuperiority in Stephen produce ſuch effects on his government, as might have been naturally expected from it. The weakeſt bigot that ever reigned could not have ſacrificed more of the rights of the ſtate to a falſe ſenſe of religion, than he did to falſe notions of intereſt and ambition.

Conſidering him in the moſt favourable light, we ſhall find him unfit for a throne. If he had been only an earl of Montagne and Boulogne, he might, perhaps, by his courage, liberality, and good-nature, have ſupported that rank with a very fair reputation. But no great idea can be formed of a monarch, whoſe whole conduct broke every rule of good and true policy: who having gained his crown by the love of the nation, governed by foreign miniſters, and foreign arms; yet, at the ſame time, gave way to innovations which rendered his ſubjects formidable to him; then, by all the means of abſolute deſpotiſm, without regard to law or juſtice, endeavoured to ſubdue the power he had raiſed; and after having made his whole reign a long civil war, purchaſed at laſt a diſhonourable and joyleſs peace, by excluding his ſon from the ſucceſſion to the crown, adopting his enemy, and leaving himſelf little more than the vain pageantry and name of a king.

Character

Character of Siward, Earl of Northumberland. From the ſame.

THE Engliſhman, whom William the Firſt truſted and favoured moſt, was Waltheof, eldeſt ſon to Siward earl of Northumberland, famous for his victory over the tyrant of Scotland, Macbeth.

This Siward was one of the moſt extraordinary men who lived in thoſe times. H. of Huntington ſays, he was almoſt a giant in ſtature, and had ſtrength of mind not inferior to that of his body. In the battle againſt Macbeth he loſt his ſon, and we are told, that, when he was informed of his death, he aſked the meſſenger, "Whether he "had received the mortal wound "before or behind?" Being anſwered, that "it was before," he ſaid; "I greatly rejoice; for I "eſteem no other death worthy of "me, or my ſon." Another writer relates, that, feeling himſelf ready to expire from the violence of a bloody flux, he ſaid, "It was a ſhame "for a warrior, who had ineffectu-"ally ſought death in ſo many bat-"tles, to die now like a beaſt," and therefore he commanded his ſervants to cloath him in a complete ſuit of armour, took his battle-axe in his right hand, his ſhield in his left, and in that martial habit and poſture gave up the ghoſt.

This was exactly in the ſpirit of the ancient Goths or Celts: and one ſhould have thought that a great kingdom, the nobility of which had theſe ſentiments, was in no danger of being conquered a few years afterwards, by foreign arms. The ſon of Siward, Earl Waltheof, did not degenerate from his father: nor was Hereward inferior to either of them in valour. But no force of magnanimity or natural courage in a nation can enable it to reſiſt a ſuperior diſcipline, and a greater ſkill in the art of war.

Character of Henry the Second. From the ſame.

SOME monarchs, great in war, or while they are ſtruggling with the ſtorms of adverſity, ſink, in tranquillity, into an effeminate and negligent indolence, which ſeems to unnerve all the vigour of their minds. But Henry Plantagenet was not one of thoſe. Peace did not lay his virtues aſleep; it only gave them a different exerciſe. His courage and magnanimity were then exerted in correcting the abuſes of government, and bringing the ſtate of the whole kingdom as near to perfection as the times would permit. How far he had gone, before, in this arduous work, the reader has ſeen. But a wiſe prince will never think of endeavouring to reform all evils at once; much leſs ſuch as are covered under reſpectable names. Where he has not only faction but prejudice to contend with, he will proceed with great caution, wait for proper ſeaſons, and be ſure, by other trials, that his authority is too ſtrong to be eaſily baffled. Nay, he will be patient till he has brought the voice of the public to declare itſelf loudly in favour of the reformation he meditates. Henry did thus, with regard to the independency on the civil power, which, in Stephen's reign, the Engliſh clergy had arrogated to themſelves, and ſtill continued to

claim. But before I enter upon this ſubject, I think it will be proper to give ſome account of him in thoſe parts of his character, which make us acquainted with *the man* as well as *the king*. I ſhall alſo delineate a ſhort ſketch of the cuſtoms and manners of the nation, and endeavour to ſupply whatſoever is wanting for the information of the reader, in the civil and political ſtate of the kingdom.

The perſon of Henry was maſculine and robuſt, excelling rather in ſtrength of limbs and dignity of aſpect, than in delicate or exact proportions of beauty. Yet his features were good; and, when his mind was ſerene, there was in his eyes a great ſweetneſs; but, when he was angry, they ſeemed to ſparkle with fire, and dart out flaſhes of lightning, ſays Peter of Blois, in a deſcription he gives of him to the archbiſhop of Palermo. This paſſionate temper, which ſhewed itſelf in his countenance by ſuch viſible marks, was his greateſt imperfection: for, upon any ſudden provocation, he could not command the firſt motions of his rage, though at other times he poſſeſſed an extraordinary degree of prudence and judgment. Nevertheleſs this infirmity never betrayed him into furious or cruel actions; but only broke out in words or geſtures: nor did his anger long continue; and, when he was cool, his diſpoſition and behaviour were gentle and humane. He was tenderly compaſſionate to all perſons in diſtreſs; and his good œconomy ſeemed to be chiefly employed in providing an ample fund for his charity and bounty. Beſides what he laid out in acts of munificence occaſionally done, ſome of which were the greateſt we read of in our hiſtory, he aſſigned the tenth part of the proviſions of his houſhold, to be conſtantly given in daily alms to the poor. His treaſures were ever open to all men of merit; but he was particularly liberal in his preſents to ſtrangers, who came to viſit his court; as many did from all the nations in Europe, drawn by his fame, which was every where high and illuſtrious. Giraldus Cambrenſis, a writer of conſiderable note in thoſe days, ſpeaks of him with ſome degree of cenſure on this account; as if his having been ſo laviſh to foreigners was a detriment to his ſervants and domeſtic attendants, who were better entitled to his gifts. But very little regard is due to that author in what he ſays againſt Henry, towards whom he was ſoured, not only by his prejudices as an eccleſiaſtic, but by having been diſappointed in his hopes of promotion to the ſee of St. David's, which I ſhall have occaſion to ſay more of hereafter. His malignity appears very ſtrong in this inſtance: for ſurely that prince deſerved no blame, but rather much commendation, for this part of his conduct. A generous hoſpitality is not the leaſt of royal virtues. It does honour to a nation, and is attended with many political benefits: for gueſts, who have been obliged by favours conferred upon them in a foreign court, return home the partizans and friends of that court, and often ſerve it more uſefully than its own miniſters. Nor can there be a more ſhameful weakneſs in a king, than the allowing his courtiers to conſider his wealth as a part of their property. Henry was too wiſe to encourage ſuch a notion.

notion. He did not ſuffer thoſe about him to confine either his purſe or his ear to themſelves. As his own judgment directed the courſe of his bounty, ſo his affability extended itſelf even to the meaneſt of his ſubjects: inſomuch that his miniſters muſt have found it a very difficult matter to conceal from him any truth, which it was uſeful for him to know. But, though his ears were always open to information or complaint, his heart was ſhut againſt calumny: nor did any good ſervant, through the whole courſe of his long reign, ſuffer any loſs of favour or credit, by the ſecret whiſpers of malice, or the vain and groundleſs clamour of popular rumours. He was ſo conſtant in his friendſhips, and choſe his miniſters with ſuch diſcretion, that not one of thoſe whom he principally truſted was ever diſgraced; except only Becket, who rather quitted, than loſt, the place he had gained in his heart. The perſons who are moſt ſteady in their attachments are generally moſt apt to retain their averſions: and I find it obſerved in the character of this prince, that whom he once hated he could hardly be perſuaded to admit any more to a ſhare of his favour; but it does not appear that he ever hated without a ſufficient cauſe. With what a generous clemency he pardoned rebellions, and other offences committed againſt himſelf, ſome remarkable inſtances have already been given, and more will occur in the latter parts of this hiſtory: but there is one which it is proper to take notice of here, as it will not fall in with the ſeries of events related in the following books.

Some gentlemen of his court being accuſed, in his preſence, of having, at the ſuggeſtion of the biſhop of Worceſter, talked of him indecently and to his diſhonour, they did not deny the words which were laid to their charge, but alledged that they were ſpoken when their minds were heated and diſordered with wine. On this apology, he diſmiſſed them all without any puniſhment, and retained no unkindneſs towards them or the biſhop: an admirable proof of true magnanimity, and ſuch as is found in few princes! for even the beſt are ſometimes more angry at any liberty taken with their perſons, than at an act of high treaſon againſt their crown. But Henry's good-nature got the better of his pride; and he was ſo wiſe as to know, that his character would gain more by this moderation, than it could ſuffer by any injurious aſperſions. Nor would he encourage the baſeneſs and malignity of informers, who endeavour to recommend themſelves to the favour of a prince, by bringing to his ear the unweighed expreſſions of men in their hours of freedom: a practice as pernicious to the quiet of the ſovereign as to the ſecurity of the ſubject. Henry's behaviour on this occaſion effectually delivered his court from that peſt, and rendered the air of it pure and healthful to liberty.

Of the piety of this prince we have a remarkable teſtimony from William Fitz-Stephen, a contemporary writer of Becket's life. He tells us, that the king would ſometimes watch with the monks of Merton-abbey three nights before Eaſter: and that, after the evening ſervice on Good Friday, he was accuſtomed to ſpend the re-

mainder of the night, till the hour of nine, when the ſervice of Eaſter eve begins, in walking on foot, and muffled up in a cowl, with only one companion, to viſit all the poor churches in the neighbourhood, and perform his devotions in them. The ſerious ſenſe of religion, which theſe practices ſeem to indicate, however tinctured with a degree of innocent ſuperſtition, deſerves great praiſe; and more eſpecially in a monarch, who with ſo much ſpirit oppoſed the encroachments of the church on the temporal rights of the ſtate.

No gentleman of that age excelled him in politeneſs, or had a more becoming and agreeable manner of converſing with all who approached him. His wit was very lively, but neither petulant, nor ill-natured: ſo that it made him no enemies, nor ever let down the dignity of his character. He had alſo the advantage of a wonderful memory, and a great flow of natural eloquence; which happy endowments he improved by a continual application to learning. For he was not content (as princes uſually are) with the rudiments acquired in his childhood; but conſtantly employed a great part of his leiſure in ſecret ſtudy, or in aſſemblies of clergymen, with whom he delighted to reaſon and hear their opinions, on points of literature and ſcience. His daily ſchool (ſays Peter of Blois) was the converſation of the moſt learned men, and a kind of academical diſcuſſion of queſtions.

With his intimate friends he lived in the moſt gracious and eaſy familiarity, particularly with Becket, to whoſe houſe and table he would frequently come uninvited and unexpected. "After they had "finiſhed their ſerious affairs, they "played together," ſays a writer of Becket's life, "like two boys "of the ſame age." The king's good humour ſeems indeed to have been ſometimes "too playful, in "the eye of the public." But the notions of decorum were not in thoſe times ſo high and rigid as now: nor could the military life, then led by our monarchs, be rendered conſiſtent with all that pride of royal ſtate, which the forms of a ſettled court are thought to require. Indeed any king may ſafely and amiably diveſt himſelf of his majeſty, in hours of recreation, if he knows how to keep it up, on proper occaſions; and if thoſe companions, whom he chuſes to unbend himſelf with, are neither ſo mean, nor ſo vicious, as by their intimacy to diſhonour and leſſen his character. Henry ſported with his chancellor, and with the nobility of his court: but it does not appear that he ever contaminated himſelf with the low ſociety of buffoons, or any of thoſe who find acceſs to the leiſure hours of princes, by miniſtring to their vices, or ſoothing their follies.

His favourite diverſion was hunting; in which he followed the cuſtoms of his anceſtors, and more eſpecially of the Normans, who took a pride in this exerciſe, as indicating a manly temper of mind, and forming the body to the toils and hardſhips of war. We are told by his preceptor, Peter of Blois, that when he was not reading, or at council, he had always in his hands a ſword, or a hunting ſpear, or a bow and arrows. The hunting ſpear was uſed againſt wild boars, which were then in our foreſts,

reſts, and adding greatly to the danger added alſo to the honour of this recreation. Henry roſe by break of day, purſued the chace till evening with unabated ardour, and when he came home, though all his ſervants were tired with following him, he would not ſit down; but was always on his feet, except at his meals, which he uſually made very ſhort. Even while he was conſulting on buſineſs with his miniſters, he ſtood, or walked. Thus he kept down a diſpoſition to corpulency which would have otherwiſe incommoded him, and preſerved the alacrity of youth to old age. From the continual habit of exerciſe he was ſo indefatigable, that he would perform in one day (if occaſion required it) a journey of three or four to an ordinary traveller; by which expedition he often came unexpectedly upon his enemies, diſconcerted the meaſures that were taken againſt him, and cruſhed the firſt motions to rebellion or ſedition, even in the moſt diſtant parts of all the ſeveral ſtates that were under his government. The frequent progreſſes he made about England have already been mentioned. They were very beneficial to his people; the execution of the laws, the good order of cities, the improvement of agriculture, manufactures, and trade, being thus under his own immediate inſpection. He was the ſoul of his kingdom, pervading every part of it, and animating the whole with his active vivacity. Nor were his cares for the public interrupted by luxury, or the powers of his mind diſordered or enfeebled by exceſs. He was conſtantly ſober, and often abſtemious both in eating and drinking. His table was frugal, his diet plain, and in his dreſs he affected the utmoſt ſimplicity, diſliking all ornaments, which might encumber him and hinder his exerciſe, or ſhew an effeminate regard to his perſon. Yet this did not proceed from inattention to women. He was but too ſenſible of the power of their attractions, and too deſirous to pleaſe them, even to the end of his life.

Character of the Empreſs Matilda. From the ſame.

WHILE Henry was employed in ſuppreſſing this revolt, he received an account of the death of his mother Matilda, the greateſt lady that Europe had ever ſeen, empreſs of Germany by her firſt marriage, counteſs of Anjou, Touraine, and Maine, by her ſecond, and, by the will of her father confirming her claim from hereditary right, ducheſs of Normandy and queen of England. Yet ſhe was more truly great in the latter part of her life, when ſhe acted only as a ſubject under the reign of her ſon, than at the time when ſhe beheld king Stephen her priſoner, and England at her feet. The violence of her temper and pride, inflamed by ſucceſs, had then diſhonoured her character, and made her appear to her friends, as well as to her enemies, unworthy of the dominion to which ſhe was exalted: but from the inſtructions of adverſity, age, and reflection, ſhe learned the virtues ſhe moſt wanted, moderation and mildneſs. Theſe, joined to the elevation and vigour of her mind, wherein ſhe had always ſurpaſſed her ſex, enabled her to become a moſt uſeful counſellor and miniſter to her ſon, in the affairs of

his government, which, for ſome time paſt, had been her ſole ambition. There is not in all hiſtory another example of a woman who had poſſeſſed ſuch high dignities, and encountered ſuch perils for the ſake of maintaining her power, being afterwards content to give it up, and, without forſaking the world, to live quietly in it; neither mixing in cabals againſt the ſtate, nor aſpiring to rule it beyond that limited province, which was particularly aſſigned to her adminiſtration! Such a conduct was meritorious in the higheſt degree, and more than atoned for all the errors of her former behaviour.

Character of Sir Philip Sidney, with a compariſon between him and the celebrated chevalier Bayard. From the ſame.

I Will add, that the two laſt, who appear to have faſhioned themſelves upon the model of chivalry, and to have poſſeſſed in perfection all the virtues of their order, were, in France, the chevalier Bayard, and, in England, Sir Philip Sidney.

In valour, courteſy, generoſity, and a high and noble ſenſe of honour, the peculiar virtues of chivalry, theſe two knights may be well compared together; but Sir Philip Sidney's character, upon the whole, is much ſuperior to Bayard's, becauſe he not only excelled in wit and learning, but was alſo endowed with great talents and abilities for ſtate affairs, as we know from the teſtimony of the greateſt ſtateſman of that age, William prince of Orange, who ſent this meſſage to Queen Elizabeth by Sir Fulk Greville, "*that (in his judgment) her "majeſty had one of the ripeſt and "greateſt counſellors of ſtate in Sir "Philip Sidney that then lived in "Europe*, to the trial of which he "was pleaſed to leave his *own "credit* engaged, until her majeſty "might pleaſe to employ this gen-"tleman either amongſt her friends "or enemies."

The credit of the prince of Orange, wants no ſupport; but I will add, from the ſame author, Sir Fulk Greville, the teſtimony of the earl of Leiceſter, who ſaid to Sir Fulk, "that when he under-"took the government of the Low-"countries he carried his nephew "(Sir Philip Sidney) over with "him, as one amongſt the reſt; "not only deſpiſing his youth for "a counſellor, but withal bearing "a hand over him as a forward "young man. Notwithſtanding, "in ſhort time *he ſaw this ſun ſo "riſen above his horiſon, that both "he and all his ſtars were glad to "fetch light from him.* And in "the end acknowledged, *that he "held up the honour of his caſual "authority by him whilſt he lived, "and found reaſon to withdraw "himſelf from that burden after his "death.*" But leſt this praiſe might be ſuſpected as coming from a relation, Sir Fulk ſays further: "In what extraordinary eſtimation "his worth was, even amongſt ene-"mies, will appear by his death: "when Mendoza, *a ſecretary of "many treaſons againſt us*, acknow-"ledged openly, *that, howſoever he "was glad King Philip, his maſter, "had loſt in a private gentleman a "dangerous enemy to his ſtate; yet "he could not but lament to ſee Chriſ-"tendom deprived of ſo rare a light "in theſe cloudy times, and bewail "poor Widow England (ſo he term-

" *ed her) that, having been many* " *years in breeding one eminent ſpi-* " *rit, was in a moment bereaved of* " *him by the hands of a villain*" (or *low common ſoldier*; for that is the meaning of the word *villain* in this place.)

We may therefore conclude, that, in the faculties of his mind, Sir Philip Sidney roſe above the higheſt pitch of knightly accompliſhments, and was not only " un " Chevalier ſans peur et ſans re- " proche," but fit for the greateſt offices of ſtate and government. It ſeems indeed no leſs diſhonourable to the memory of Queen Elizabeth, that ſhe ſhould have let ſuch a ſpirit and ſuch talents as his remain ſo long unemployed, than that ſhe ſhould have truſted ſo much of her moſt arduous buſineſs to her unworthy favourite the earl of Leiceſter. As for the Chevalier Bayard, he does not appear to have had any extraordinary parts, or to have been ranked among the *ſtateſmen* of the times in which he lived: nor had he any ſuperior degree of knowledge, to diſtinguiſh him much from the ignorant nobility of his country: whereas Sir Philip had acquired ſuch a reputation for ſcience and taſte in the fine arts, that (to uſe the words of the above-mentioned author) " the univerſi- " ties abroad and at home account- " ed him a general Mæcenas of " learning; dedicated their books " to him, and communicated eve- " ry invention or improvement of " knowledge with him. There " was not a cunning painter, a " ſkilful engineer, an excellent " muſician, or any other artificer " of extraordinary fame, that made " not himſelf known to this fa- " mous ſpirit, and found him his " true friend without hire, and " the common rendezvous of worth " in his time." Since I wrote this, the public has been entertained with the life of a very extraordinary man, the Lord Herbert of Cherbury, written by himſelf, from which he appears to have been as ſtrongly poſſeſſed with the high ſpirit of chivalry as Sir Philip Sidney, and was alſo a man of parts and learning. But he ſeems to have had weakneſſes and defects in his character ariſing chiefly from vanity, which are not to be found in Sidney, none of whoſe actions were improper, and much leſs were they ridiculous. Yet it muſt be owned, if theſe gentlemen are compared as *writers*, that Lord Herbert's Hiſtory of King Henry the Eighth is ſuperior upon the whole to any work of Sir Philip Sidney.

The following curious particulars of ſome remote nations and tribes of TARTARS, *who are but little known, and even their names ſeldom heard of in Europe, are extracted from the travels of* John Bell *of Antermoney; and we doubt not will be pleaſing to many of our readers.*

Of the Kalmucks.

THE author being at Cazan, ſays, after dinner a party of us croſſed the river to viſit a great horſe-market, held by the Kalmuck Tartars; we ſaw about five or ſix hundred of theſe people, aſſembled in a field, with a number of horſes all running looſe, except thoſe on which the Tartars were

mounted. The buyers came from different parts of Ruſſia. The Tartars had their tents pitched along the river ſide. Theſe tents are of a conical figure; there are ſeveral long poles erected inclining to one another, which are fixed at the top into ſomething like a hoop, that forms the circumference of an aperture for letting out the ſmoak, or admitting the light; acroſs the poles are laid ſome ſmall rods, from four to ſix feet long, and faſtened to them with thongs: this frame is covered with pieces of felt, made of coarſe wool and hair. Theſe tents afford better ſhelter than any other kind, and are ſo contrived as to be ſet up, taken down, folded and packed up with great eaſe and quickneſs, and ſo light that a camel may carry five or ſix of them. Where the chan or any perſon of character reſides, they are placed in ſtrait lines. Theſe Tartars are ſtrong made, ſtout men, their faces broad, noſes flattiſh, and eyes ſmall and black, but very quick. Their dreſs is very ſimple, conſiſting of a looſe coat of ſheep-ſkins, tied with a girdle, a ſmall round cap, turned up with fur, having a taſſel of red ſilk at the top, leather or linen drawers, and boots: their heads are all ſhaved, except a lock behind, which is plaited and hangs down their backs.

They are armed with bows and arrows, a ſabre and lance, which they manage with great dexterity acquired by conſtant practice from their infancy. They are men of courage and reſolution; but much afraid of cannon, which puts their horſes in diſorder. As they are almoſt always on horſe-back, they are excellent riders.

The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only their gowns are ſomewhat longer than the coats of the men, a little ornamented, and bordered with party-coloured cloth; they wear earrings, and their hair all plaited in locks. The better ſort dreſs in ſilks in ſummer. It muſt be obſerved for the honour of their women, that they are very honeſt and ſincere, and few of them lewd; adultery is a crime ſcarce ever heard of. The Tartars make very good and faithful ſervants; and the more mildly they are uſed the better they perform their duty; for their wandering unconfined manner of life naturally inſpires them with ſentiments of liberty, and averſion and hatred to tyranny and oppreſſion.

All their wealth is their flocks; like thoſe who lived in the early ages of the world, they have camels, horſes, cows, and ſheep. The horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are ſometimes ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong; they are ſold at this fair at five to fifteen or ſixteen crowns, and the ſtrong well-ſhaped natural pacers much higher. They have a few camels, but many dromedaries, who have two protuberances on their backs. Their cows are of a middle ſize. The ſheep large, having broad tails like thoſe in Turkey; the wool is coarſe, but the mutton very fine.

In the preceding century a Kalmuck prince, named Torgott-Chorluke, came from Alack-ulla, (which ſignifies the ſpotted mountains) a country ſituated between Siberia on the north, and India on the ſouth, to the borders of Ruſſia; and

and brought along with him about fifty thouſand families, or tents, as they ſometimes reckon. In his march weſtward to the Volga, he defeated Eyball-utzick, a Tartar prince, who lived in tents beyond the river Embo. Advancing forward he met three other Tartar chiefs, named Kitta-haptzay, Malebaſh, and Etzan, whom he alſo defeated. And at laſt ſettled to the eaſt of the Volga, under the protection of the Ruſſians. Chorluke had ſix ſons; Dangtzinq the oldeſt ſucceeded him in the government, or chanſhip.

The preſent chan, named Aijuka, is the fourth from Chorluke, and is much eſteemed in the eaſt for his ſagacity and juſtice. I am informed, that the reaſon why Chorluke left his own country, was a diſpute about the ſucceſſion to the chanſhip. He, being engaged on the weakeſt ſide, and having unſucceſsfully tried his fortune in the field, at laſt took the reſolution of abandoning his own country altogether. Theſe people are generally called the black Kalmucks, though they are not black, but only ſwarthy.

They have no money, except what they get from the Ruſſians, and their other neighbours, in exchange for cattle: with this they buy meal ſometimes, but moſtly cloth, ſilk-ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have no mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, managing horſes, and hunting. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one place, and work like a Ruſſian. Their language contains none of thoſe horrid oaths common enough in tongues of more enlightened nations. They believe virtue leads to happineſs, and vice to miſery; for, when deſired to do what they think wrong, they reply, in a proverb, 'Though a knife 'be ſharp it cannot cut its own 'handle.'

On long marches all their proviſions conſiſt of cheeſe, or rather dried curd, made up into little balls, which they drink when pounded and mixt with water. If this kind of food fails, they have always many ſpare horſes, which they kill and eat. They broil or roaſt the fleſh before the fire, on pieces of broken arrows, and never eat it raw, as is commonly believed, unleſs compelled by neceſſity. They have indeed large thick pieces of horſe-fleſh, ſmoaked or dried in the ſun, which they eat; but this cannot properly be called raw. I have taſted ſome of it, and thought it not amiſs.

As to their religion I can ſay little; they are downright Heathens, and have many lamas or prieſts, who can read and write, and are diſtinguiſhed by their yellow habits. Their high prieſt is called Delay-Lama, and lives far to the eaſtward.

Of the Tzerimiſh and Tzoowaſh.

There are two pretty numerous tribes, called the Tzerimiſh and Tzoowaſh: they ſpeak a language quite different from the Mahometan Tartars in theſe parts, who uſe a corrupted dialect of the Arabic. The Mahometans likewiſe have ſome learn-

learning; but the Tzerimiſh and Tzoowaſh have none. They have a tradition among them, that in former times they had a book of religion; but, as no body could read it, a cow came and ſwallowed it. They pay great veneration to a bull. From whence they came is unknown; but, from their complexion, it is probable they are from Aſia. They live by agriculture, and ſeem to be an inoffenſive kind of people. Their huntſmen offer in ſacrifice to ſome deity the firſt creature they catch. Hence ſome curious men have imagined theſe people part of the ten tribes of the Jews, expelled by Shalmanezer, I advance this only as a conjecture, which every reader may allow, or not, as he pleaſes.

By accident I met with an Engliſhman at this place. He was by trade a carpenter, and had been in the Ruſſian ſervice; but, being ſuſpected of deſerting, he was condemned to baniſhment, to this country, for a certain time: and, notwithſtanding that was elapſed, the poor man, deprived of all means of aſſerting his liberty, remained ſtill in the ſame ſituation. He bought a Tzerimiſh wife, from her father, for ſix rubles, about thirty ſhillings ſterling. He brought her to viſit me. She was a woman of a chearful and open countenance, and dreſſed in the manner of her country: of which, for its ſingularity, I ſhall give a ſhort deſcription.

Her hair was plaited round her head, in many locks, but that on the back part longer than the reſt, at the end of which was tied a taſſel of red ſilk, and in the middle a ſmall round braſs bell; about her head was a fillet ſet with ſmall ſhells, inſtead of jewels, and hung all round with ſilver pence; above this was a piece of linen ſo artfully plaited, and done up, that it looked like a grenadier's cap; at the top was a ſilk taſſel, with another braſs bell, which jingled as ſhe turned her head. The reſt of her dreſs was clean, though homely, and the whole ſeemed becoming enough.

Of the Tartars about Aſtrachan.

The Mahometan Tartars here live without the town, and have the ſame privileges as in other places. I met ſeveral of their women in the ſtreet with rings in their noſes, which were of different value according to the rank of the perſon who wore them; ſome of gold, and others ſet with precious ſtones. On enquiring the reaſon of ſuch a ſingular ornament, I was told, that it was the conſequence of a religious dedication of theſe perſons to the ſervice of God: it is made by the parents, even while the mother is pregnant; in token whereof, as ſoon as the child is born, they put a ring in the right noſtril, which continues there till death. I have ſeen ſome with two ſuch rings.

One day, as I was walking through the ſtreets of Aſtrachan, I obſerved a very ſingular appearance; it was a pretty Tartar lady mounted aſtride upon an ox; ſhe had a ring in her noſe, and a ſtring drawn through the noſe of the ox, which ſerved inſtead of a bridle; ſhe was dreſſed better than common, and attended by a footman: the ſingularity of the equipage, but particularly her extraordinary

nary beauty, drew my attention. The Mahometan muſt not be confounded with the Kalmuck Tartars; the firſt are a well-looking civilized people in compariſon of the other.

Before I leave Aſtrachan it may be proper to rectify a miſtaken opinion, which I have obſerved frequently to occur in grave German authors, who, in treating of the remarkable things of this country, relate that there grows in this deſart, or ſtepp, adjoining to Aſtrachan, in ſome plenty, a certain ſhrub or plant, called in the Ruſſian language Tartarſkey baraſhka, i. e. Tartarian lamb, with the ſkins of which the caps of the Armenians, Perſians, Tartars, &c. are faced; they alſo write, that this Tartarſkey baraſhka partakes of animal as well as vegetable life; that it eats up and devours all the graſs and weeds within its reach. Though it may be thought, that an opinion ſo very abſurd could find no credit with people of the meaneſt ſhare of underſtanding, yet I have converſed with ſome who have ſeemed much inclined to believe it: ſo very prevalent is the prodigious and abſurd with ſome part of mankind.

In ſearch of this wonderful plant I walked many a mile, accompanied by Tartars who inhabit theſe deſerts; but all I could find out were ſome dry buſhes, ſcattered here and there, which grow on a ſingle ſtalk, with a buſhy top, of a browniſh colour; the ſtalk is about eighteen inches high; the top conſiſting of ſharp prickly leaves: it is true that no graſs or weeds grow within the circle of its ſhade, a property natural to many other plants here, and elſewhere. After further enquiry of the more ſenſible and experienced among the Tartars, I found they laughed at it as a ridiculous fable.

At Aſtrachan they have great quantities of lamb-ſkins, grey and black; ſome waved, others curled, all naturally, and very pretty, having a fine gloſs, particularly the waved, which, at a ſmall diſtance, appear like the richeſt watered tabby; they are much eſteemed, and are much uſed for the lining of coats, and the turning up of caps in Perſia, Ruſſia, and other parts. The beſt of theſe are brought from Bucharia, Chiva, and the countries adjacent, and are taken out of the ewe's belly, after ſhe hath been killed, or the lamb is killed immediately after it is lambed; for ſuch a ſkin is equal in value to the ſheep.

The Kalmucks and other Tartars, who inhabit the deſert, in the neighbourhood of Aſtrachan, have alſo lamb-ſkins, which are applied to the ſame purpoſes; but the wool of theſe being rougher, and more hairy, they are far inferior to thoſe of Bucharia, or Chiva, both in gloſs and beauty, as alſo in the dreſſing, conſequently in value. I have known one ſingle lamb-ſkin of Bucharia ſold for five or ſix ſhillings ſterling, when one of theſe would not yield two ſhillings.

Of the Koſſatſhy-Orda, and Kara-Kalpacks, or Black-Caps.

This place is ſometimes alarmed with incurſions of the Tartars, called Koſſatſhy-Orda, and Kara-Kalpacks; but the Ruſſians have of

of late ſo fortified their frontiers, that theſe rovers appear ſeldomer than formerly. Both theſe tribes are Mahometans, live always in tents, and ſpread themſelves, with their flocks, in the great deſert; both are very numerous, and own ſubjection to different chiefs, whom they call Batteer, which ſignifies a hero. Theſe are choſen by themſelves, and are the moſt famous among them for their abilities in military exploits. They are at continual war with the Kalmucks who inhabit along the Volga, and with all their other neighbours. They are not able to ſtand againſt regular troops; and, when attacked by them, retire into the wide deſert, with their families and cattle; whither none, but people accuſtomed to their manner of life, can follow them.

The country of the Kara-Kalpacks, or Black-Caps, ſo called from a kind of caps they commonly wear turned up with black lamb-ſkins, lies to the ſouth-weſt, towards the Volga. That of Koſſatſhy-Orda extends to the ſouth-eaſt, as far as the river Irtiſh.

Of the Tartars at and near Tobolſki, the capital of Siberia. Of the Kontayſha, or prince of the black Kalmucks.

Under the hill in the ſuburbs, along the banks of the river, are ſeveral large ſtreets, called the Tartar ſtreets, occupied by the remains of the ancient inhabitants of theſe parts. Here, as at other places, theſe people enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, and the privileges of trade. They reſemble, in their perſons, religion, language, and manners, the Tartars of Cazan and Aſtrachan. Their houſes are very cleanly. They are very courteous to ſtrangers, and eſteemed honeſt; on which account they get great credit in their commercial affairs.

Before I leave this place, I imagine it will not be improper to ſubjoin a few more particulars relative to the Kontayſha, prince of the Kalmucks, whom I formerly mentioned. I am the more inclined to do this, as I can entirely depend on my intelligence; having procured it from perſons who have been in that country, and ſeen this prince; but particularly from an ingenious and penetrating gentleman, who fills a public office in this place, and was employed in ſeveral meſſages to him from the late governor of Siberia.

The territories of this prince are bounded by three of the moſt potent empires in the world; on the north by Ruſſia, by China on the eaſt, and by the country of the Great Mogul to the ſouth. From the two firſt he is ſeparated by deſert plains, and from the third by almoſt impaſſable mountains. To the ſouth-weſt his frontiers reach near to Bucharia. The Kontayſha is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field, at a ſhort warning, an hundred thouſand horſemen, who are all of them able-bodied men, well mounted, and armed with bows and arrows, lances and ſabres. This is a greater number of horſe than any prince that I know can muſter, except his Ruſſian majeſty, and the emperor of China. Theſe Tartars live in tents all the year, removing from place to place, as called by neceſſity or inclination. This is the moſt ancient and pleaſant

ſant manner of life. It is entertaining to hear them commiſerate thoſe who are confined to one place of abode, and obliged to ſupport themſelves by labour, which they reckon the greateſt ſlavery?

The Kontayſha has always ſome thouſands of his ſubjects encamped near himſelf, who treat him with great veneration and reſpect. And, in juſtice to him, it muſt be confeſſed, that he is as attentive to the intereſts of his people, and as aſſiduous in the adminiſtration of juſtice in particular, as if they were his own children.

The Kalmucks are not ſuch ſavage people as they are generally repreſented; for I am informed a perſon may travel among them with greater ſafety, both to his perſon and effects, than in many other countries.

The Kontayſha received the deputies from the governor of Siberia like ambaſſadors from foreign princes, and treated them accordingly. This ſhews what high reſpect theſe eaſtern princes entertain for his Czariſh majeſty, when the governor of Siberia is regarded as a ſovereign. The ceremony on theſe occaſions was as follows:

The deputy with his ſervants were admitted into the tent, where the Kontayſha ſat, with his queen and ſeveral children about him. He deſired all of them to ſit down on carpets or mats; for the Kalmucks, like moſt Aſiatics, uſe no chairs. They were entertained with tea before dinner; and, after it, the Kontayſha diſmiſſed the deputy in a friendly manner, telling him, he would ſend for him next day to receive an anſwer to the governor's letter, which he punctually performed. This anſwer was expreſſed in very plain and conciſe terms. Theſe Tartars in general write with brevity and perſpicuity. I have ſeen ſeveral of their letters tranſlated, which pleaſed me extremely, as they contained no tedious preambles, nor diſguſting repetitions, which ſerve only to perplex the reader.

The emperor of China was ſome time ago engaged in a war with the Kontayſha, about ſome frontier towns, of which the latter took poſſeſſion, and maintained his claim with a ſtrong army. The emperor ſent againſt him an army of three hundred thouſand men, under the command of his fourteenth ſon, who is reckoned the beſt general of all his children. Notwithſtanding their ſuperiority in numbers, the Kontayſha defeated the Chineſe in ſeveral actions. The emperor at laſt thought it beſt to accommodate the difference, and a peace was concluded to the ſatisfaction of both parties.

It muſt be obſerved, that the Chineſe, being obliged to undertake a long and difficult march, through a deſert and barren country, lying weſtward of the long wall; being alſo incumbered with artillery, and heavy carriages, containing proviſions for the whole army during their march had their force greatly diminiſhed before they reached the enemy. The Kontayſha, on the other hand, having intelligence of the great army coming againſt him, waited patiently on his own frontiers, till the enemy was within a few days march of his camp, when he ſent out detachments of light horſe to ſet fire to the graſs, and lay waſte the country. He alſo diſtracted them,

them, day and night, with repeated alarms, which, together with want of provifions, obliged them to retire with confiderable lofs.

This method of carrying on war, by wafting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practifed by all of them from the Danube eaftward. This circumftance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muft thereby be deprived of all fubfiftence, while the Tartars, having always many fpare horfes to kill and eat, are at no lofs for provifions.

I have only to add, that the Kontayfha muft be the fame prince who, in our European maps, is generally called the Great Cham of Tartary. As no Europeans travel through that country, thefe maps muft be very erroneous. It is however to be expected, that the Ruffians will, in time, make a more compleat difcovery of the eaftern parts of Afia.

We paffed through many Tartar villages, and at night lodged in one of their little huts, and warmed ourfelves at a good fire on the hearth. Thefe houfes confift generally of one or two rooms, according to the ability of the landlord. Near to the hearth is fixed an iron kettle to drefs the victuals. In one end of the apartment is placed a bench, about eighteen inches high, and fix feet broad, covered with mats, or fkins of wild beafts, upon which all the family fit by day, and fleep in the night. The walls are built of wood and mofs, confifting of large beams, laid one above another, with a layer of mofs between every two beams. All the roofs are raifed. A fquare hole is cut out for a window, and, to fupply the want of glafs, a piece of ice is formed to fit the place exactly, which lets in a good light. Two or three pieces will laft the whole winter. Thefe Tartars are very neat and cleanly, both in their perfons and houfes. They ufe no ftoves, as the Ruffians do. Near the houfe there is commonly a fhade for the cattle.

Of the Barabintzy, or Tartars of Baraba.

Here we laid in provifions for our journey over the Baraba; which fignifies, in the Tartar language, a marfhy plain. Its inhabitants are a mixture of different Tartar tribes, called Barabintzy, from the name of the country in which they live. They are a poor miferable people, being treated as fubjects both by the emperor and kontayfha; and obliged to pay a tribute, in furs and fkins of wild beafts, to each. They have no grain, nor cattle of any kind, except a few rein deer; and fubfift by hunting and fifhing. What fifh they confume not in the fummer are dried and fmoaked for their winter provifions. They are partly of the Mahometan and partly of the Kalmuck religion; but this difference caufes no difputes,

In the places through which we paffed, the ambaffador fent for all the hunters and fportfmen, that he might inquire what kinds of game and wild beafts were in their neighbourhood. Hunting is the employment of moft of the young fellows in this country; and is very profitable, as they fell the furs

furs to great advantage. We found that this place produced great plenty both of game and wild beaſts, but few ſables. In the ſpring, a number of elks and ſtags come hither from the ſouth, many of which are killed by the inhabitants, both on account of their fleſh and their hides. What of the fleſh is not conſumed freſh they ſalt. The hides are very large, and are dreſſed into excellent buff. The huntſman, having found the track of a ſtag upon the ſnow, purſues it upon his ſnow-ſhoes, with his bow and arrows, and little dog, till the animal is quite fatigued: for, the ſnow on the ſurface being melted by the heat of the ſun, and congealed at night by the froſt, but not ſtrong enough to bear the weight of ſuch an animal, he ſinks deep at every ſtep, and the ſharp ice cuts his ancles and lames him, ſo that he becomes an eaſy prey to the hunter.

One of theſe hunters told me the following ſtory, which was confirmed by ſeveral of his neighbours, That, in the year 1713, in the month of March, being out a hunting, he diſcovered the track of a ſtag, which he purſued. At overtaking the animal, he was ſomewhat ſtartled, on obſerving it had only one horn, ſtuck in the middle of its forehead. Being near this village, he drove it home, and ſhewed it, to the great admiration of the ſpectators. He afterwards killed it, and ate the fleſh; and ſold the horn to a comb-maker, in the town of Tara, for ten alteens, about fifteen pence ſterling. I inquired carefully about the ſhape and ſize of this unicorn, as I ſhall call it, and was told it exactly reſembled a ſtag. The horn was of a browniſh colour, about one archdeen, or twenty-eight inches long; and twiſted, from the root, till within a finger's length of the top, where it was divided, like a fork, into two points very ſharp.

Baraba is really what its name ſignifies, an extenſive marſhy plain. It is generally full of lakes and marſhy grounds, overgrown with tall woods of aſpin, alder, willows, and other aquatics; particularly many large birch-trees, having their bark as white and ſmooth as paper. The lakes abound with various kinds of fiſhes; ſuch as pikes, perches, breams, eels, and, particularly, a fiſh called karraſs, of an uncommon bigneſs, and very fat. Theſe the inhabitants dry, in ſummer, for winter proviſions; which are all the food to be found among them. I have eat of it often, and thought it not diſagreeable. In winter, they uſe melted ſnow for water. They are very hoſpitable; and deſire nothing, in return of their civilities, but a little tobacco to ſmoke, and a dram of brandy, of which they are very fond. The dreſs, both of men and women, conſiſts of long coats of ſheep-ſkins, which they get from the Ruſſians and Kalmucks, in exchange for more valuable furs. As they wear no other apparel, not even ſhirts, they are very naſty. Their huts are moſt miſerable habitations, and ſunk about one half under ground. We were glad, however, to find them as a baiting-place in ſuch a cold ſeaſon.

The Barabintzy, like moſt of the ancient natives of Siberia, have many conjurers among them; whom

whom they call ſhamans, and ſometimes prieſts. Many of the female ſex alſo aſſume this character. The ſhamans are held in great eſteem by the people; they pretend to correſpondence with the ſhaytan, or devil; by whom, they ſay, they are informed of all paſt and future events, at any diſtance of time or place. Our ambaſſador reſolved to inquire ſtrictly into the truth of many ſtrange ſtories, generally believed, concerning the ſhamans; and ſent for all of fame, in that way, in the places through which we paſſed.

In Baraba, we went to viſit a famous woman of this character. When we entered her houſe, ſhe continued buſy about her domeſtic affairs, without almoſt taking any notice of her gueſts. However, after ſhe had ſmoked a pipe of tobacco, and drank a dram of brandy, ſhe began to be more chearful. Our people aſked her ſome trifling queſtions about their friends; but ſhe pretended to be quite ignorant, till ſhe got more tobacco, and ſome inconſiderable preſents; when ſhe began to collect her conjuring tools. Firſt, ſhe brought the ſhaytan; which is nothing but a piece of wood, wherein is cut ſomething reſembling a human head, adorned with many ſilk and woollen rags, of various colours; then a ſmall drum, about a foot diameter, to which were fixed many braſs and iron rings, and hung round alſo with rags. She now began a diſmal tune, keeping time with the drum, which ſhe beat with a ſtick for that purpoſe: ſeveral of her neighbours, whom ſhe had previouſly called to her aſſiſtance, joined in the chorus. During this ſcene, which laſted about a quarter of an hour, ſhe kept the ſhaytan, or image, cloſe by herſelf, ſtuck up in a corner. The charm being now finiſhed, ſhe deſired us to put our queſtions. Her anſwers were delivered very artfully, and with as much obſcurity and ambiguity as they could have been given by any oracle. She was a young woman, and very handſome.

Of the Tonguſy.

We continued our journey, for ſeveral days, along the Tonguſta. We found, now and then, little villages, or ſingle houſes, on the banks. One day we chanced to meet a prodigious flock of hares, all as white as the ſnow on which they walked. I ſpeak within compaſs when I ſay there were above five or ſix hundred of them. They were coming down the river, very deliberately, on a ſmall path, of their own making, cloſe to the beaten road. As ſoon as they ſaw us, all of them ran into the woods, without ſeeming much frightened. I am informed that theſe hares travel to the ſouth, in much greater flocks than this, every ſpring, and return in autumn, when the rivers are frozen and the ſnow falls. In moſt of the villages we found plenty of this ſort of veniſon; the inhabitants, however, value it but little; for they catch theſe hares more on account of their ſkins, of which they make conſiderable profits, than their fleſh.

The Tonguſy, ſo called from the name of the river, who live along its banks, are the poſterity of the ancient inhabitants of Siberia,

beria, and differ in language, manners, and dreſs, and even in their perſons and ſtature, from all the other tribes of theſe people I have had occaſion to ſee. They have no houſes, where they remain for any time, but range through the woods, and along rivers, at pleaſure; and, wherever they come, they erect a few ſpars, inclining to one another at the top; theſe they cover with pieces of birchen bark, ſewed together, leaving a hole at the top to let out the ſmoke. The fire is placed in the middle. They are very civil and tractable, and like to ſmoke tobacco, and drink brandy. About their huts they have generally a good ſtock of rein-deer, in which all their wealth conſiſts.

The men are tall and able-bodied, brave, and very honeſt. The women are of a middle ſize, and virtuous. I have ſeen many of the men with oval figures, like wreaths, on their foreheads, and chins; and ſometimes a figure, reſembling the branch of a tree, reaching from the corner of the eye to the mouth. Theſe are made, in their infancy, by pricking the parts with a needle, and rubbing them with charcoal, the marks whereof remain as long as the perſon lives. Their complection is ſwarthy. Their faces are not ſo flat as thoſe of the Kalmucks, but their countenances more open. They are altogether unacquainted with any kind of literature, and worſhip the ſun and moon. They have many ſhamans among them, who differ little from thoſe I formerly deſcribed. I was told of others, whoſe abilities in fortune-telling far exceeded theſe of the ſhamans at this place, but they lived far northward. They cannot bear to ſleep in a warm room, but retire to their huts, and lie about the fire on ſkins of wild beaſts. It is ſurpriſing how theſe creatures can ſuffer the very piercing cold in theſe parts.

The women are dreſſed in a fur-gown, reaching below the knee, and tied about the waiſt with a girdle. This girdle is about three inches broad, made of deer's ſkin, having the hair curiouſly ſtitched down and ornamented; to which is faſtened at each ſide, an iron ring, that ſerves to carry a tobacco-pipe, and other trinkets of ſmall value. Their gowns are alſo ſtitched down the breaſt, and about the neck. Their long black hair is plaited, and tied about their heads, above which they wear a ſmall fur-cap, which is becoming enough. Some of them have ſmall ear-rings. Their feet are dreſſed in buſkins, made of deer ſkins, which reach to the knee, and are tied about the ancles with a thong of leather.

The dreſs of the men is very ſimple, and fit for action. It conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves, made of deer's ſkin, having the fur outward; trouſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and tight to the limbs. They have beſides a piece of fir, that covers the breaſt and ſtomach, which is hung about the neck with a thong of leather. This, for the moſt part, is neatly ſtitched and ornamented by their wives. Round their heads, they have a ruff, made of the tails of ſquirrels, to preſerve the tips of the ears from the cold. There is nothing on the crown, but the hair ſmoothed, which hangs in a

long plaited lock behind their backs.

Their arms are a bow and ſeveral ſorts of arrows, according to the different kinds of game they intend to hunt. The arrows are carried in a quiver on their backs, and the bow always in their left hand. Beſides theſe, they have a ſhort lance, and a little hatchet. Thus accoutred, they are not afraid to attack the fierceſt creature in the woods, even the ſtrongeſt bear; for they are ſtout men, and dexterous archers. In winter, which is the ſeaſon for hunting wild beaſts, they travel on what are called ſnow ſhoes, without which it would be impoſſible to make their way through the deep ſnow. Theſe are made of a very thin piece of light wood, about five feet long, and five or ſix inches broad, inclining to a point before, and ſquare behind. In the middle is fixed a thong, through which the feet are put. On theſe ſhoes a perſon may walk ſafely over the deepeſt ſnow; for a man's weight will not ſink them above an inch; theſe however can only be uſed on plains. They have a different kind for aſcending hills, with the ſkins of ſeals glued to the boards, having the hair inclined backwards, which prevents the ſliding of the ſhoes; ſo that they can aſcend a hill very eaſily; and, in deſcending, they ſlide downwards at a great rate.

The nation of the Tonguſy was very numerous; but is, of late, much diminiſhed by the ſmall-pox. It is remarkable, that they knew nothing of this diſtemper, till the Ruſſians arrived among them. They are ſo much afraid of this diſeaſe, that, if any one of a family is ſeized with it, the reſt immediately make the patient a little hut, and ſet by him ſome water and victuals; then, packing up every thing, they march off to the windward, each carrying an earthen pot, with burning coals in it, and making a dreadful lamentation as they go along. They never reviſit the ſick, till they think the danger paſt. If the perſon dies, they place him on a branch of a tree, to which he is tied with ſtrong withes, to prevent his falling.

When they go a hunting into the woods, they carry with them no proviſions; but depend entirely on what they are to catch. They eat every animal that comes in their way, even a bear, fox, or wolf. The ſquirrels are reckoned delicate food; but the ermins have ſuch a ſtrong rank taſte and ſmell, that nothing but ſtarving can oblige them to eat their fleſh. When a Tonguſe kills an elk or deer, he never moves from the place, till he has eat it up, unleſs he happens to be near his family; in which caſe, he carries part of it home. He is never at a loſs for fire, having always a tinder-box about him; if this ſhould happen to be wanting, he kindles a fire by rubbing two pieces of wood againſt each other. They eat nothing raw, but in great extremity.

The ſables are not caught in the ſame manner as other animals. The fur is ſo tender, that the leaſt mark of an arrow, or ruffling of the hair ſpoils the ſale of the ſkin. In hunting them they only uſe a little dog, and a net. When a hunter finds the track of a ſable upon the ſnow, he follows it, perhaps, for two or three days, till the

the poor animal, quite tired, takes refuge in ſome tall tree; for it can climb like a cat; the hunter then ſpreads his net around the tree, and makes a fire; the ſable, unable to endure the ſmoke, immediately deſcends, and is caught in the net. I have been told, by ſome of theſe hunters, that, when hard pinched with hunger, on ſuch long chaces, they take two thin boards, one of which they apply to the pit of the ſtomach, and the other to the back oppoſite to it; the extremities of theſe boards are tied with cords, which are drawn tighter by degrees, and prevent their feeling the cravings of hunger.

Although I have obſerved, that the Tonguſy, in general, worſhip the ſun and moon, there are many exceptions to this obſervation. I have found intelligent people among them, who believed there was a being ſuperior to both ſun and moon; and who created them and all the world.

I ſhall only remark farther, that from all the accounts I have heard and read of the natives of Canada, there is no nation in the world, which they ſo much reſemble as the Tonguſians. The diſtance between them is not ſo great as is commonly imagined.

Of the Buraty.

Here we found another tribe of the natives of Siberia, who differ, in ſome particulars, from all thoſe I have formerly deſcribed. They are called by the Ruſſians Bratſky, but by themſelves Buraty. They live in tents all the year; and, having large flocks of ſheep, and many cows and horſes, they remove from place to place, as the convenience of grazing requires. Their language has a great affinity to that of the Kalmucks; and they have prieſts among them who can read and write that language. As to their dreſs, and manner of life, I could obſerve little difference between them and the Kalmucks on the Volga; and therefore conclude they have both deſcended from the ſame original. Their faces, however, are not quite ſo flat as thoſe of the Kalmucks; their noſes being ſomewhat higher, and their countenances more open.

The Buraty are ſtout active men, but hate all kind of labour. For, though they have the example of the Ruſſians ploughing and ſowing their ground, and living plentifully on the produce of this rich and fertile ſoil, they chuſe ſtill to live in their tents, and tend their flocks, on which their ſubſiſtence entirely depends.

The chief exerciſe of the men is hunting and riding. They have a good breed of ſaddle-horſes; and their horned cattle are very large. Their ſheep have broad tails, and their mutton is excellent. They have alſo great abundance of goats. For all theſe animals they make no proviſion of fodder; but leave them to feed in the open fields. When the ſnow falls to a great depth, which ſeldom happens in theſe parts, they drive them ſouthward to riſing grounds, where little ſnow lies.

Their arms are bows and arrows, lances and ſabres; all of which are uſed on horſe-back; for, like the Kalmucks, they have no infantry. They are dexterous archers, and ſkilful horſemen.

Theſe people were formerly ſub-

ject to a prince of the Mongalls; but now live very quietly under the Ruſſian government. They are at preſent a very numerous people, reaching towards the eaſt and ſouth of the Baykall lake; and are generally reckoned very honeſt and ſincere.

As to their dreſs, the men wear a coat, or rather gown, of ſheep-ſkins, girt about the middle, in all ſeaſons; a ſmall round cap, faced with fur, having a taſſel of red ſilk at the top; which, together with a pair of drawers and boots, makes up the whole of their apparel. The womens' dreſs is nearly the ſame; only their gowns are plaited about the waiſt, and hang down like a petticoat. The married women have their hair hanging in two locks, one on each ſide of the head, drawn through two iron rings to prevent its floating on the breaſt; and looking very like a tye-wig. Round their forehead they wear a hoop of poliſhed iron, made faſt behind; and on their head a ſmall round cap, faced with fur, and embroidered, in their faſhion, to diſtinguiſh it from thoſe of the men. The maids are dreſſed in the ſame manner; only, their hair is all plaited, hanging in ſeparate locks round their head, and is as black as a raven; ſome of them have good complexions. Both the men and women are courteous in their behaviour. I ſhould like them much better if they were a little more cleanly. Both their perſons and tents are extremely naſty, from their uſing only ſkins to preſerve them from the cold; on theſe they ſit, or lie, round a little fire, in their tents.

The religion of the Buraty ſeems to be the ſame with that of the Kalmucks, which is down-right paganiſm of the groſſeſt kind. They talk indeed of an almighty and good being, who created all things, whom they call Burchun; but ſeem bewildered, in obſcure and fabulous notions, concerning his nature and government. They have two high prieſts, to whom they pay great reſpect; one is called Delay-Lama, the other Kutuchtu. Of theſe prieſts I ſhall have an opportunity to give ſome account afterwards.

In paſſing the tents of the Buraty, I often obſerved a long pole; whereon was hung, by the horns, the head and ſkin of a ſheep. On enquiring the reaſon of this appearance, I was told that the animal, whoſe head and ſkin theſe were, had been ſlain, and offered in ſacrifice, to the God who protected their flocks and herds. I could obſerve no images among them, except ſome relics given them by their prieſts, which they had from the Delay-Lama; theſe are commonly hung up in a corner of their tents, and ſometimes about their necks, by way of an amulet, to preſerve them from misfortunes.

Of a Buratſky Shaman, or Conjurer.

We were entertained with a famous Buratſky ſhaman, who was alſo a lama, or prieſt, and was brought from a great diſtance. As theſe ſhamans make a great noiſe in this part of the world, and are believed by the ignorant vulgar, to be inſpired, I ſhall give ſome account of the behaviour of this one, in particular, by which it will appear that the whole is an impoſition.

He was introduced to the ambaſſador by the commandant, accompanied by ſeveral chiefs of his own tribe, who treat him with great reſpect. He was a man of about thirty years of age, of a grave aſpect and deportment. At his introduction he had a cup of brandy preſented to him, which he drank, but refuſed any more.

After ſome converſation, he was deſired to exhibit ſome ſpecimen of his art; but he replied, he could do nothing in a Ruſſian houſe; becauſe there were ſome images of ſaints, which prevented his ſucceſs. The performance was therefore adjourned to a Buratſky tent in the ſuburbs. Accordingly, in the evening, we went to the place appointed, where we found the ſhaman, with ſeveral of his companions, round a little fire, ſmoking tobacco; but no women among them. We placed ourſelves on one ſide of the tent, leaving the other for him and his countrymen. After ſitting about half an hour, the ſhaman placed himſelf croſs-legged upon the floor, cloſe by a few burning coals upon the hearth, with his face towards his companions; then he took two ſticks, about four feet long each, one in each hand, and began to ſing a diſmal tune, beating time with the ſticks; all his followers joined in the chorus. During this part of the performance, he turned and diſtorted his body into many different poſtures, till, at laſt, he wrought himſelf up to ſuch a degree of fury that he foamed at the mouth, and his eyes looked red and ſtaring. He now ſtarted up on his legs, and fell a dancing, like one diſtracted, till he trode out the fire with his bare feet. Theſe unnatural motions were, by the vulgar, attributed the operations of a divinity; and, in truth, one would almoſt have imagined him poſſeſſed by ſome demon. After being quite ſpent with dancing, he retired to the door of the tent, and gave three dreadful ſhrieks, by which, his companions ſaid, he called the demon to direct him in anſwering ſuch queſtions as ſhould be propoſed. He then returned, and ſat down in great compoſure, telling he was ready to reſolve any queſtion that might be aſked. Several of our people put queſtions in abundance; all which he anſwered readily, but in ſuch ambiguous terms that nothing could be made of them. He now performed ſeveral leger-demain tricks; ſuch as ſtabbing himſelf with a knife, and bringing it up at his mouth, running himſelf through with a ſword, and many others too trifling to mention. In ſhort, nothing is more evident than that theſe ſhamans are a parcel of jugglers, who impoſe on the ignorant and credulous vulgar.

Of a Buratſky Tea-drinking.

Our horſes having ſwam the river, we went into one of the Buratſky tents, till they were dried. The hoſpitable landlady immediately ſet her kettle on the fire, to make us ſome tea; the extraordinary cookery of which I cannot omit deſcribing. After placing a large iron kettle over the fire, ſhe took care to wipe it very clean with a horſe's tail that hung in a corner of the tent for that purpoſe; then the water was put

into it, and, ſoon after, ſome coarſe bohea tea, which is got from China, and a little ſalt. When near boiling, ſhe took a large braſs ladle and toſſed the tea, till the liquor turned very brown. It was now taken off the fire, and after ſubſiding a little, was poured clear into another veſſel. The kettle being wiped clean with the horſe's tail, as before, was again ſet upon the fire. The miſtreſs now prepared a paſte, of meal and freſh butter, that hung in a ſkin near the horſe's tail, which was put into the tea-kettle and fried. Upon this paſte the tea was again poured; to which was added ſome good thick cream, taken out of a clean ſheep's ſkin, which hung upon a peg among the other things. The ladle was again employed, for the ſpace of ſix minutes, when the tea, being removed from the fire, was allowed to ſtand a while in order to cool. The landlady now took ſome wooden cups, which held about half a pint each, and ſerved her tea to all the company. The principal advantage of this tea is, that it both ſatisfies hunger and quenches thirſt. I thought it not diſagreeable; but ſhould have liked it much better had it been prepared in a manner a little more cleanly. Our bountiful hoſteſs, however, gave us a hearty welcome; and, as theſe people know not the uſe of money, there was nothing to pay for our entertainment. We only made her a preſent of a little tobacco to ſmoke, of which theſe people are very fond. I have given this receipt with a view that ſome European ladies may improve upon it.

Of the Mongall Tartars.

The Mongalls are a numerous people, and occupy a large extent of country, from this place to the Kallgan, which ſignifies the everlaſting Wall, or the great wall of China. From this wall they ſtretch themſelves northward as far as the river Amoor; and from the Amoor, weſtward, to the Baykall ſea; where they border with the territories of the Kontayſha, or prince of the black Kalmucks. On the ſouth, they are bounded by a nation called Tonguts, among whom the Delay-Lama has his reſidence. One may eaſily imagine, from the vaſt track of land which the Mongalls occupy, that they muſt be very numerous; eſpecially when it is conſidered, that they live in a healthy climate, and have been engaged in no wars, ſince they were conquered, partly by the Ruſſians on the weſt, and partly by the Chineſe on the eaſt; to whom all theſe people are now tributaries. In former times the Mongalls were troubleſome neighbours to the Chineſe, againſt whoſe incurſions the great wall was built.

Kamhi, the preſent emperor of China, was the firſt who ſubdued theſe hardy Tartars; which he effected more by kind uſage and humanity than by his ſword; for theſe people are great lovers of liberty. The ſame gentle treatment hath been obſerved by the Ruſſians, towards thoſe of them, who are their ſubjects. And they themſelves confeſs, that, under the protection of theſe two mighty emperors, they enjoy more liberty, and live at more eaſe, than they

they formerly did under their own princes.

The preſent prince of Mongalia is called Tuſh du Chan, and reſides about ſix days journey, to the ſouth-eaſt, from Selinginſky. The place is called Urga, and is near to where the Kutuchtu, or high prieſt, inhabits. When the Mongalls ſubmitted themſelves to the emperor of China, it was agreed, that the Tuſh-du-Chan ſhould ſtill maintain the name and authority of a prince over his people; but undertake no war, nor expedition, without conſent of the emperor; which has ſtrictly been obſerved ever ſince.

It is remarkable, that, in all the vaſt dominions of Mongalia, there is not ſo much as a ſingle houſe to be ſeen. All the people, even the prince and high prieſt, live conſtantly in tents; and remove, with their cattle, from place to place, as conveniency requires.

Theſe people do not trouble themſelves with ploughing, or digging the ground in any faſhion; but are content with the produce of their flocks. Satisfied with neceſſaries, without aiming at ſuperfluities, they purſue the moſt ancient and ſimple manner of life; which, I muſt confeſs, I think very pleaſant in ſuch a mild and dry climate.

From the river Volga, to the wall of China, there are three great Tartar princes; the Ayuka-Chan, the Kontayſha, and the Tuſh-du-Chan. Theſe three mighty nations have almoſt the ſame features, religion, and language; and live in the ſame manner. It will eaſily be perceived, by caſting an eye on the map, what an extent of territory theſe princes poſſeſs, whoſe ſubjects go by the general name of Kalmucks. Few languages can carry a traveller over a greater extent of country than that of the Kalmucks. With the Arabic, indeed, a perſon may travel through many places of the eaſt from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul; but, with the Illyric, he can travel much further than with either of the former: viz. from the gulf of Venice to the outmoſt boundaries of Kamtzatſky; for the Ruſſian is a dialect of the Illyric.

The greateſt part of Mongalia is one continued waſte; except the places along the Amoor, and towards the Ruſſian borders on the weſt. The ſoil alſo, to the ſouth, from Selinginſky, is exceedingly fine; and capable, by proper culture, of producing grain of ſeveral ſorts.

Of the Kutuchtu High Prieſt, or Lama, of the Mongall Tartars.

The ſame officer, who carried the ambaſſador's letter to the prince of Mongalia at Urga, was ordered to preſent his compliments to the Kutuchtu, or high prieſt, who is a near relation of the prince. He received the officer in a very friendly manner, deſired him to ſit down in his preſence; an honour granted to very few, except ambaſſadors, and pilgrims from remote countries; and, at his departure, gave him a preſent of ſome inconſiderable things; particularly, a few pieces of Chineſe ſilks.

I cannot leave this venerable perſonage, without taking ſome notice of him. I ſhall therefore relate a few things concerning him, among thouſands more ridi-

culous, which the people in this country tell and believe.

This extraordinary man aſſumes to himſelf the character of omniſcience, which is the interpretation of the word Kutuchtu; and the people are taught to believe that he really knows all things, paſt, preſent, and future. As his intelligence, by means of his lamas, is very extenſive, he is eaſily able to impoſe on the vulgar in this particular. They alſo believe that he is immortal; not that his body lives always; but that his ſoul, upon the decay of an old one, immediately tranſmigrates into ſome young human body; which, by certain marks, the lamas diſcover to be animated by the ſoul of the Kutuchtu, and he is accordingly treated as high prieſt.

When the ſpirit of the Kutuchtu has taken poſſeſſion of a new body, that is, in plain Engliſh, when he is dead, the lamas are immediately employed to diſcover in what part of the world this wonderful perſon is regenerated, or born again, as they expreſs it. They need, however, go to no great diſtance to find him; for the affair being previouſly concerted among the chief lamas, they ſoon determine the choice of a ſucceſſor; who generally happens to be a young boy, that has been well inſtructed how to behave on that occaſion. When a ſucceſſor is pretended to be found, a company of lamas are ſent to examine the matter, who carry along with them many toys, ſuch as ſmall ſilver bells, and things of that nature, which belonged to the former Kutuchtu, intermixed with others that did not. All theſe are laid before the child, who picks out ſuch things as belonged to his predeceſſor, and diſcovers the greateſt fondneſs for them; but rejects, with diſguſt, whatever is not genuine. Beſides this trial, ſome queſtions are put to him, relative to wars, or remarkable events, in his former ſtate; all which are anſwered to the ſatisfaction of the conclave. Whereupon he is unanimouſly declared to be the ſelf-ſame Kutuchtu, is conducted with great pomp and ceremony to Urga, and lodged in the tent of the high prieſt.

Till the new Kutuchtu arrives at a certain age, he is entirely under the government of the lamas; and few are permitted to ſee him, except at a great diſtance, and even then it is not eaſy to get acceſs to him. It may ſeem ſurpriſing, that, in ſo numerous an aſſembly of lamas, no intrigues ſhould be carried on, nor diſputes ariſe, among the electors. All is conducted without noiſe or contention. It is however imagined, that the authority of the prince greatly contributes to their unanimity.

The Mongalls relate, that their Kutuchtu has now lived fourteen generations, and renews his age every moon; for, at the new moon, he appears like a youth; when ſhe is full, like a full grown man; but, when near the change, he is an old man with grey hairs.

What they call the Urga is the court, or the place where the prince and high prieſt reſide; who are always encamped at no great diſtance from one another. They have ſeveral thouſand tents about them, which are removed from time to time. The Urga is much frequented by merchants from China, and Ruſſia, and other places; where all trade is carried on by barter, with-

without money of any kind. The Chineſe bring thither ingots of gold, damaſk, and other ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, tea, and ſome porcelain; which are generally of an inferior quality, and proper for ſuch a market. The Ruſſian commodities are chiefly furs of all ſorts. Rhubarb is the principal article which is exchanged for theſe goods, great quantities whereof are produced in this country, without any culture. The Mongalls gather and dry it in autumn; and bring it to this market, where it is bought up, at an eaſy rate, both by the Ruſſian and Chineſe merchants.

The Kutuchtu and his lamas are all clothed in yellow, and no layman is allowed to wear his colour, except the prince. This mark of diſtinction makes them known and reſpected every where. They alſo wear about their necks a ſtring of beads, which are uſed in ſaying their prayers. The Mongalls believe in, and worſhip, one Almighty Creator of all things. They hold that the Kutuchtu is God's vicegerent on earth; and that there will be a ſtate of future rewards and puniſhments.

The following relation, which I had from a Ruſſian merchant, to whom the thing happened, will ſhow the methods taken by theſe lamas, to maintain the dignity and character of their mighty high prieſt. This merchant had gone to the Urga, with an intention to trade with the Chineſe. While he was at this place, ſome pieces of damaſk were ſtolen out of his tent. He made a complaint to ſome of the lamas, with whom he was acquainted: and the matter was ſoon brought before the Kutuchtu, who immediately ordered proper ſteps to be taken with a view to find out the thief. The affair was conducted in this uncommon manner; one of the lamas took a bench with four feet, which ſeems to have been of the conjuring kind; after turning it, ſeveral times, in different directions, at laſt it pointed directly to the tent where the ſtolen goods lay concealed. The lama now mounted aſtride on the bench, and ſoon carried it, or, as was commonly believed, it carried him to the very tent; where he ordered the damaſk to be produced. The demand was directly complied with; for it is in vain, in ſuch caſes, to offer any excuſe.

'I ſhall now ſubjoin a few obſervations on the Delay-Lama, or prieſt of the deſert, who is reckoned ſtill ſuperior to the Kutuchtu. He lives about a month's journey to the ſouth-eaſt of this place, among a people called the Tonguts, who uſe a different language from the Kalmucks. I am informed that the religion of the Tonguts is the ſame with that of the Mongalls; that they hold the ſame opinions with reſpect to the tranſmigration of the Delay-Lama, as the Mongalls do about the Kutuchtu, and that he is elected in the ſame manner. What appears moſt ſurpriſing is, that theſe two mighty Lamas keep a good correſpondence, and never encroach on one another's privileges. The word *delay* ſignifies either the ſea, or a great plain, ſuch as this prieſt inhabits.

Of an Interview, and Hunting Match with a Mongall Batyr, or Hero.

A chief, named Tayſha, of thoſe Mongalls who are ſubjects of his ma-

majeſty, came to pay his reſpects to the ambaſſador, who gave him a friendly reception, and kept him to dinner. He was a merry old man, near fourſcore, but ſo vigorous, that he could mount a horſe, with as much agility as many young men. He was accompanied with five ſons, and many attendants, who treated him with equal reſpect as a king; and even his ſons would not ſit down in his preſence, till he deſired them. I confeſs it gave me great pleaſure to ſee the decency with which they behaved. One of our company, a pretty fat man, aſked the Tayſha what he ſhould do in order to be as lean as he was. The old man replied in theſe few words, "Eat leſs, and work more: a ſaying worthy of Hippocrates himſelf. In his youth he had been engaged in many battles with the Chineſe, whom he held in great contempt. As he was a keen ſportſman, the ambaſſador made an appointment with him for a grand hunting match. After which he and his retinue returned to their tents.

The Tayſha-Batyr arrived, in conſequence of his appointment with the ambaſſador, and brought along with him three hundred men, well mounted for the chace. This old gentleman had the appellation of Batyr; a title of great reſpect among the Mongalls. It ſignifies a hero; and is conferred only on thoſe who have ſignalized themſelves, by their courage and conduct, in the field of battle. Beſides theſe Mongalls, we carried with us fifty of our Coſſacks, and our tents, as we propoſed to be abroad ſome days.

Early on the 6th, we took our way to the eaſtward, over high hills, and through tall woods, having almoſt no underwood to incommode the horſes, or interrupt our view; which made it very pleaſant. After riding a few miles, the Tayſha, being maſter of the chace, ordered his men to extend their lines. The Tayſha and we were in the center; and often ſaw the game paſs us, purſued by the horſemen, at full ſpeed, without the leaſt noiſe, but the whiſtling of arrows The horſes, being accuſtomed to this kind of ſport, follow the game as a greyhound does a hare; ſo that the riders lay the bridles on their necks, and attend to nothing but their bows and arrows. One may eaſily imagine the exquiſite entertainment, in ſeeing ſeveral of theſe horſemen in purſuit of an elk or ſtag through the valleys. When the animal is driven from the woods, it flies, for ſafety, to the neareſt rocks. Some of theſe creatures are nearly as large, and ſtrong, as the horſes that hunt them. The ſtags are of two kinds; one called zuber, the ſame with the German crownhirſh, but ſomewhat larger. The zuber is large and beautiful, and carries its head almoſt upright as it runs; which prevent its horns being entangled with branches of trees. There are none of them in Ruſſia, nor even in Siberia, except about the Baykall lake, and eaſtward from it; the places farther to the north being too cold for them. The elk is larger than the ſtag, and ſtronger made; having alſo long branchy horns, but a little flat.

Tired with ſport, we left the hills in the afternoon, and came down into a fine valley, where we pitched our tents, near a pure brook. The Tayſha then ordered all

all the dead game to be brought before him, and ranged in proper order. We found, that, this day, we had killed no leſs than five large elks, four ſtags, a dozen roe-bucks, ſeveral wolves and foxes, beſides fawns and hares.

The Tayſha cauſed the game to be divided among the huntſmen; who began immediately to dreſs it, ſome of them by boiling, others by broiling, and eat it without either bread, or ſalt. The tails of the ſtags, which, by theſe people, are reckoned very delicate, fell to the Tayſha's ſhare. He cut them into ſlices, and eat them raw. I ate a bit of one of them, and thought it very palatable. The taſte reſembled nothing ſo much as that of freſh caviare. After we had feaſted on variety of excellent veniſon, for we had no other proviſions, we went to reſt, well ſatisfied with the diverſion of the day.

Our author gives the following account of the cuſtom amongſt the Mongall Tartars, of ſetting the graſs on fire, in the vaſt plains of their country.

The graſs is rank and thick, and, as the ſeaſon is very dry, would, with little labour, make excellent hay. This graſs is often ſet on fire, by the Mongalls, in the ſpring, during high winds. At ſuch times it burns moſt furiouſly, running like wild-fire, and ſpreading its flames to the diſtance of perhaps ten or twenty miles, till its progreſs is interrupted by ſome river or barren hill. The impetuoſity of theſe flames, their ſmoke and crackling noiſe, cannot eaſily be conceived by thoſe who have not ſeen them. When any perſon finds himſelf to the leeward of them, the only method, by which he can ſave himſelf from their fury, is to kindle immediately the graſs where he ſtands, and follow his own fire. For this purpoſe, every perſon is provided with flints, ſteel, and tinder. The reaſon why the Mongalls ſet fire to the graſs is to procure early paſture for their cattle. The aſhes, left upon the ground, ſink into the earth at the melting of the ſnow, and prove an excellent manure; ſo that the graſs, in the ſpring, riſes on the lands, which have been prepared in this manner, as thick as a field of wheat. Caravans, travellers with merchandiſe, but eſpecially armies, never encamp upon this rank graſs. And there are ſeveral inſtances of conſiderable bodies of men being put in confuſion, and even defeated, by the enemy's ſetting fire to the graſs.

Character of the Duke of Shrewſbury: From a Book entitled, Thoughts, Eſſays, and Maxims, chiefly Religious and Political. By Charles Howard, Eſq; of Greyſtock, in Cumberland.

CHarles Talbot, duke of Shrewſbury, was a great man, firſt earl in England, of a moſt ancient family, and either a lineal or a collateral deſcendant from the renowned Talbot, who made ſo conſpicuous a figure in France, in the wars between England and France in the reigns of Henry V. and VI. He was not brought up to the military art, but had great talents and abilities as a miniſter and ſtateſman, and the real and true politeneſs of a nobleman. He paſſed

paſſed through moſt of the great offices of ſtate; he was knight of the garter, ambaſſador in France, lord-lieutenant in Ireland, and I believe, once ſecretary of ſtate; in all which ſtations he had the happineſs to pleaſe, and give ſatisfaction. He is very well ſpoken of in France and Ireland, though this latter country was at that time the moſt difficult to govern and content, from the rage of party and faction which then prevailed in the remnants of Jacobitiſm, ſo rooted in that people's underſtanding; it being immediately or ſoon after the revolution, when king William gained the crown of Great Britain without the loſs of one man's life; but as he eſtabliſhed himſelf in Ireland by victory, courage, and military ſkill ſuperior to his opponent, this of courſe left more rancour in that people's mind, from the natural conſequences of the humiliating conſideration of being beaten; and a lively people, as the Iriſh are, were more particularly affected by it. This ſpirit of remembrance was artfully kept up by all the principles of religion, and the moſt violent jealouſy; and perhaps encouraged by foreign powers, as well as all the intereſt and influence of the Stuart family, who then reſided at St. Germain in France, and who ever lived in the flattering hopes of a reſtoration; for which reaſon it is the writer's opinion, that unhappy Stuart family has done more harm to Iriſh Roman Catholics, than many of the penal laws, as they were fundamentally the occaſion of their being made. At this time, and under theſe circumſtances, this nobleman gave content and ſatisfaction to a people who are not eaſily pleaſed, from the above reaſons; which is a very ſtrong proof of the ſolidity of his underſtanding, juſtneſs of thinking, diſintereſted and upright behaviour, and more particularly ſo in him, as he had to ſtruggle with the odium of having changed his religion among a nation, who, at that time, were five to one Roman Catholics, and were, from religious and political principles, very zealous and furious to thoſe they looked upon or regarded as apoſtates. The duke of Norfolk and himſelf conformed to the Proteſtant religion in Charles II's reign, at the time of Oates's plot; but, as he had no iſſue by the Italian lady he married (Poaloty,) the family continue Roman Catholics, and is very reſpectably repreſented in the moral and truly religious earl of Shrewſbury. His attachment to his family was noble, juſt, and praiſe-worthy; for though he diſliked his ſucceſſor, he left him all his eſtate, free and unencumbered, with this ſaying, "Though I diſlike George Talbot, I leave my eſtate to the earl of Shrewſbury."

In James II's reign, he went over to Holland, to young Naſſau, prince of Orange, and landed with him in England, and was very inſtrumental in the revolution. Perhaps he might be induced to take this ſtep, from the Letters of Coleman, who was ſecretary to the duke of York, and which were publiſhed at the time of Oates's plot: by theſe it plainly appears, that the meaſures purſued by that unhappy monarch could anſwer no end but to defeat his own intentions, ruin and dethrone himſelf, and

and hurt his own friends and adherents. He could have no motive in his junction with the prince of Orange but a ſincere conviction (in the writer's opinion,) that in doing of it he was ſerving his country; for he was made duke by him afterwards in 1694. He might, in all probability, have received the ſame honours from James II. He wanted no acquiſition of fortune, having a very good one, and he always lived within compaſs; but then he did not trim, or ſtand ſhilly-ſhally, but manly, and nobleman-like, purſued the meaſures he thought right: he took a ſide, and on that ſide was firm and ſtrong. Whatever faults he might have (and who is without them?) they were only perſonal, and did not concern the public: the writer has therefore no buſineſs to meddle with them.

In a word, he ſeems to have been very deſerving of the character one of the greateſt of the Engliſh poets, Pope, gave him: and was a worthy deſcendant of his renowned anceſtor, ſo well characterized by the immortal towering genius Shakeſpear, in the picture he gives of the father and ſon, in his Henry VI. where the ſon is brought in dead before his father.

Come, come, and lay him in his
father's arms;
My ſpirit can no longer bear theſe
harms.
Soldiers, adieu! I have what I
would have,
Now my old arms are young John
Talbot's grave.

N. B. The writer would not be thought or underſtood not to regard or look upon Oates's plot to be one of the moſt vile forgeries and perjuries that ever diſgraced the annals of Engliſh hiſtory; or to ſuppoſe that the viſcount Stafford, who was executed for the ſame, was not the reverſe of the character and diſpoſitions he was charged with by thoſe perjured wretches Bedloe and Oates; the latter of whom was convicted of perjury in the ſhort reign of James II, and publicly whipt at a cart's tail through the ſtreets of London; and king William, after the revolution, never attempted to reverſe his attainder.

Though he changed his religion himſelf, he, unlike many converts, did not think himſelf obliged to behave with more violence than others againſt his old friends, weakly to ſhew the ſincerity of his conviction; on the contrary, he ever behaved with the greateſt moderation, candor, and civility, to the Roman Catholics. His leaving his eſtate, as mentioned, is one proof; and his ſupporting Savage earl of Rivers, a Roman Catholic prieſt and nobleman, in a family diſpute in which he had been ſo ill uſed, that in heat and reſentment he conformed to the Proteſtant religion, againſt his own conviction. The duke told him, "My lord, what you have done in a private ſort of manner before a juſtice of peace, do publicly in the houſe of lords, and take your ſeat, and you will be ſupported according to the juſtneſs of your pretenſions." Upon his replying, "My lord, I have through paſſion and reſentment gone too far already;" the duke's anſwer was worthy of himſelf: "My lord, I never will preſs a

"tender

"tender conſcience;" and lord Rivers made what terms he could with his antagoniſt, and retired into Flanders, and lived many years afterwards, much reſpected, canon of Liege, where he died, about thirty years ſince. Such was the uprightneſs, and force of friendſhip, in the duke of Shrewſbury in ſupporting what appeared to himſelf juſt and honeſt, without being guided by thoſe little narrow party notions of fearing conſequences, or what the world would ſay.

Character of John Duke of Argyle. From the ſame.

THIS nobleman was a Scotchman, chief and head of the ancient and numerous family of the name of Campbell in Scotland. He was duke and peer of Scotland, and the ſame in England by the title of Greenwich, which he acquired himſelf before the union of the two kingdoms; and perhaps he may allude to this by the motto he then took, *Vix illa noſtra voco quæ non fecimus ipſi.* He was brought up to the profeſſion of arms, and behaved well, and in a ſoldier-like and gallant manner; witneſs his conduct under the duke of Marlborough, and his behaviour at Sherif-Moor, where he commanded in chief, and was the principal means and cauſe of the total extinction, at that time, of the rebellion in Scotland, without much bloodſhed. He had then a very difficult part to act as a Scotchman; for at that period three parts out of four of that kingdom were naturally and affectionately Jacobites, though they had fewer Roman Catholics among them than in either of the two other kingdoms, England or Ireland; and, perhaps, for that reaſon more openly determined and daringly profeſſed being acting friends to the Stuart family.

In direct oppoſition to him, or that part of the army he commanded, at the head of all his Campbells was placed Campbell earl of Breadalbin, of the ſame family and kindred, by ſome fatal error that ever miſguided and miſled that unhappy family of the Stuarts, and all its adherents. What was the conſequence? Both ſets of Campbells, from family affection, refuſed to ſtrike a ſtroke, and retired out of the field of battle. He never was firſt miniſter, but was a very able ſtateſman and politician, and was moſt ſteadily fixed in thoſe principles that he thought right, and not to be ſhaken or changed. His delicacy and honour were ſo great, that it hurt him to be even ſuſpected; witneſs that application ſaid to be made to him by one of the adherents of the Stuart family, in 1743 or 1744, in order to gain his intereſt, which was conſiderable both in England and Scotland. He immediately ſent the letter to the ſecretary of ſtate, and it vexed him much even to have an application made him, leſt any perſon ſhould think him capable of acting a double part. He was equally firm and reſolute in his oppoſition to the meaſures and miniſters, when he thought them wrong.

He did not oppoſe Sir Robert Walpole out of pique, party, or faction, but becauſe he thought ſome

ſome of his meaſures were erroneous, and that he made corruption too much the guide and ſtandard of his actions. Indeed, this, and his playing the fool with Jacobitiſm, and his keeping it as a ſtalking-horſe to himſelf in its power, and not attacking its head-quarters, as it has been effectually done ſince, ſeems the moſt blameworthy part of this miniſter's character, who otherwiſe was a very able one, a friend to liberty, and underſtood the conſtitution of his country well. You never can ſo effectually take any principle from man by power, force, or any method, as you do when you take it from their minds; and thoſe people you diveſt of this opinion you make more eaſy, chearful in their mind, and more capable of ſerving you.

When he thought meaſures wrong or corrupt, he cared not who was the author, however great or powerful he might be; witneſs his boldly attacking the great duke of Marlborough in the houſe of lords, about his forage and army-contracts in Flanders, in the very zenith of his power and popularity; though in all other reſpects, he was the moſt able renowned general of his time. He deſerved, and indeed he was nobly and amply rewarded by his country. The duke of Argyle poſſeſſed great public places and honourable employments, which did not influence him in his way of acting, or voting in parliament, as he ſhewed upon ſeveral occaſions, by reſigning them when he thought any thing was required of him to comply with that he did not think right. In this he is cenſured by ſome, as too haſty; for why ſhould a man, puniſh himſelf when he acts upon principle, and deprive his country of his ſervice, becauſe he thinks another doth wrong? If he was miſtaken, it muſt be as little as any man, becauſe he had a good head and heart. In the houſe of lords he ſpoke well, with a firm, manly, and noble eloquence, and ſeems to deſerve the character given of him by Pope:

Argyle the ſtate's whole thunder born to wield.
And ſhake alike the ſenate and the field.

Character of the Duke of Berwick. From the ſame.

THE duke of Berwick was natural ſon of James II. by Mrs. Arabella Churchill, ſiſter to the great duke of Marlborough. He followed the fate of his father, and came into France after the revolution with James II. who retired thither, to put himſelf under the protection of his friend and ally Lewis XIV. His ally he was, becauſe he refuſed to ſign the treaty of Augſburgh, in a general combination to lower the ambition and greatneſs of the French monarch, agreed to by moſt of the European powers, and, it is ſaid, even by the Pope himſelf. This refuſal, it is thought, haſtened the revolution; for at that time the prince of Orange's views to the crown of Great Britain, if he had any, muſt have been very diſtant; and it is thought that King William was better pleaſed with his acceſſion to the crown of Great Britain, from the ſituation and

power it gave him to attack the overgrown power of France, than from any real ſatisfaction as being king of Great Britain: and this appears more probable, from the anſwer he gave to the conventions of the ſtates, when they offered to make him king conjointly with his wife, but only for her life: "I reſpect the princeſs, but will not hold my crown on her apron-ſtrings." Such was the native love that Naſſau prince of Orange bore his country, and perhaps founded upon a good deal of reſentment, naturally cauſed by the attack upon Holland by Lewis XIV. in Charles II's reign when that republic, by the rapid victories of the French monarch, was very near deſtruction. He was not ſucceſsful, in general, in his wars with France, but laid the foundation for the more ſucceſsful one of his ſucceſſor queen Anne.

James II. was received in France and ſupported in a king-like manner during all his life at the caſtle of St. Germain. Lewis XIV. ſhewed upon all occaſions the utmoſt friendſhip for him. Indeed, the two monarchs were in ſome meaſure directed by the ſame principles in religion, which ever unite friendſhip; and both were too much, at that time, governed by the ſame ſet of prieſts. Lewis XIV's great, and otherwiſe moſt nobler character, was much blemiſhed by being in ſuch ſubjection to them. James II. was dethroned by them, from his own weakneſs in too precipitately liſtening and following their councils, in miſtaking obſtinacy and wrong-headedneſs for firmneſs and reſolution: for zeal without knowledge ever counteracts itſelf.

The duke of Berwick was recommended to the court of France by his ſuperior merit; he attained all the military honours and dignities his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty could confer on him; he was marſhal of France, knight of the Holy Ghoſt, duke and peer of France, grandee of Spain, commander in chief of the French armies; in all which ſtations his behaviour was ſuch, that few equalled, perhaps none ſurpaſſed him. He lived in an age when the renowned prince of Orange, and many other of the greateſt men, commanded againſt him. His courage was of the cool, ſteady kind; always poſſeſſing himſelf, taking all advantages, not fooliſhly, raſhly, or wantonly throwing away the lives of his ſoldiers. He kept up on all occaſions the moſt ſtrict diſcipline, and did not ſpare puniſhment among his ſoldiers for marauding and other crimes, when properly deſerved; for which ſome raſh, ſilly, inconſiderate people have found fault, and blamed him. They were hard put to it to find a fault in this great man; for ſurely an army without ſtrict diſcipline, good order, and due ſubordination, will never do their duty, as all hiſtories and times evince; and they would be little better (conſidering the ſort of men armies muſt be compoſed of) than a powerful ſet of banditti and thieves. This, then, in the writer's opinion, is far from blameable, but a moſt praiſe-worthy part of his character. If he were ſtrict and exact in his command, and the prevention of wrongs by others, he was moſt juſt in himſelf; not raiſing unneceſſary contributions

tributions, and promoting pillage, in order to enrich himſelf, as many generals have formerly done before his time. He has been reflected upon by the very zealous and violent adherents of the Stuart family, for not being ſufficiently attached to that party, which was his own family. But by a cool examination of his actions, which are ſtubborn things, and the beſt index of the mind of a ſenſible man, it will appear, that his behaviour in this particular was, as in moſt parts of his life, ſenſible and juſt. When he accepted of employments, received honours, dignities, and became a naturalized Frenchman, he thought it his duty, as an honeſt man, to become a Frenchman, and a real ſubject to the monarch who gave him bread; and to be, or not to be, in the intereſt of the Stuart family, according to the will and commands of the ſovereign whom he ſerved, and in the intereſt of France according to time and circumſtances; for there is no ſerving two maſters well. But when ordered by his king to be in that family's intereſt, he acted with the greateſt ſincerity, and took the moſt effectual and ſenſible methods to ſerve that unhappy houſe, as the following anecdote, if true, and it has great appearance and probability on its ſide, proves.

The duke of Marlborough, after the ſigning of the treaty of Utrecht, was cenſured by the Britiſh parliament for ſome of the army contracts in relation to bread and forage; upon which he retired into France: and it was then credibly aſſerted, the duke of Marlborough was brought over to the intereſt of the Stuart family; for it is now paſt a doubt that queen Anne had a very ſerious intention of having her brother upon the throne of England after her death: and ſeveral circumſtances, as well as the time * of that duke's landing in England, make many people believe he was gained over to the Stuart party. If the duke of Berwick was, directly or indirectly, the means of gaining his uncle over to that intereſt, he more effectually ſerved it than that raſh mock army of unhappy gentlemen, who were taken priſoners at Preſton in 1715, had it in their power to do.

In a word, the duke of Berwick was, without being a bigot, a moral and religious man, and ſhewed by his life and actions, that morality and religion are very compatible and conſiſtent with the life of a ſtateſman and a great general; and if they were oftener united in thoſe two profeſſions, it would be much happier for the reſt of mankind.

He was killed by a cannon-ball, in doing his duty at the ſiege of Philipſburgh, in 1738. So died the marſhal of Berwick, ripe in years, full of dignities, honours, and glory. *Sic tranſit gloria mundi.*

N. B. Lewis XIV. before his undertakings againſt Holland, ſent word, underhand, to the prince of Orange, offering to make him abſolute ſovereign of the Netherlands, if he would be his ally; when he anſwered, "he ſhould be true to his country." "But reflect, Sir, ſaid the emiſſary, how you will withſtand a prince who makes you ſuch fair offers, if he undertakes to invade Holland?" "If that be the caſe, reſumed the

* The very day or day after the death of queen Anne.

prince, I believe Europe will come to its ſuccour; but ſhould we be abandoned, and left to ourſelves, if vanquiſhed, I then fall, and ſhall periſh with my country."

Character of the Duke of Ormond. From the ſame.

THIS duke was bleſſed with a moſt noble fortune, and it fell into very good hands; for no perſon was of a more generous hoſpitable diſpoſition: he was the moſt popular man of his time, head of the ancient, opulent, and numerous family of the Butlers, both an Engliſh and an Iriſh duke, commander in chief of the Engliſh army in Flanders, when the great duke of Marlborough, by the intrigues of the party that then prevailed in England, was recalled home. He was chancellor of the Univerſity of Oxford, and I believe of Dublin, knight of the garter, and had all the honours conferred on him that his country could beſtow; and his princely generous diſpoſition became them well, and in ſome meaſure ſupported his underſtanding, which when analyzed from real facts, was but weak, and not truly ſincere and honeſt, but, like great part of mankind, not very moral. He received honours, great places of truſt and profit, from king William, queen Anne, and of courſe was obliged to take the teſt oath of allegiance and abjuration to thoſe reſpective princes: yet at the ſame time he encouraged Jacobitiſm, and, among his friends, profeſſed himſelf the greateſt friend and adherent to the houſe of Stuart. This is repugnant to ſincerity, honeſty, and, I may venture to ſay, religion, which ever ought to be aſſociated together; becauſe it is profeſſing one thing, and being, or pretending to be, of another opinion. It is weak, becauſe it is deſtructive of the ſchemes and meaſures intended to be accompliſhed and brought about: it may be ſaid to divide oneſelf againſt oneſelf, and of courſe one's own ſtrength and force is weakened, by endeavouring to demoliſh with one hand what one builds with the other.

When he was lord lieutenant of Ireland, he made, or occaſioned to be made, many of the penal laws that are moſt hurtful to the Iriſh Roman Catholics. This was not honeſt, or grateful, becauſe it was hurting thoſe who were his beſt friends. It was weak, and not politic, being directly oppoſite to that maxim, if you have a mind effectually to ſerve yourſelf, fling power into the hands of your friends: and he, by his behaviour, weakened and diſenabled thoſe people from aſſiſting him ſo much as they might have done, and by whom he expected to be ſupported.

He did not ſuffer ſo much by his attainder as many others that acted with more determined ſincerity and reſolution; becauſe his brother, the earl of Arran, a very good ſort of man, enjoyed and poſſeſſed great part of his very opulent fortune, which enabled him to perform what was dictated by brotherly affection and honeſty, in paying him annually a ſufficient ſum to live in a moſt princely manner at Avignon, where he died; from whence he was brought, and buried in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Upon

Upon the whole, it is thought by many, that if George I. who was in himſelf a humane and compaſſionate prince, had not been ſo much ſet againſt him, he would have accepted of his ſervices, when he made a tender and offer of them, upon his landing at Greenwich.

With all his foibles and weakneſſes, he might have become a very good ſubject, and a uſeful member to ſociety, particularly to Ireland, his native country, when he had ſeen his errors; for to do the Iriſh juſtice, with whom the writer is well acquainted, ingratitude doth not ſeem to be among their national vices. That he would have ſeen his errors, and have corrected them, there is the greateſt probability and reaſon to think; becauſe it is credibly aſſerted, and I believe known, that he abſolutely refuſed, directly or indirectly, to be concerned in any of the confuſions and troubles that happened in his country in the year 1745. Why not change his opinions, or correct his errors? It is never too late to mend, or own you have been in the wrong, which is next to being in the right. Some of his friends aver, that he never externally profeſſed a thing, but what he internally believed at the time, and was ſincere: this is very difficult to credit, as it rarely happens in ſuch frequent changes; eſpecially as he ſeldom veered but when his intereſt or power was thereby enlarged: but if it be true, it only ſhews a weakneſs, and a mutability of diſpoſition liable to the influence of others.

Character of Cardinal de Fleury. From the ſame.

Peace is my delight, not FLEURY's more. POPE.

CArdinal Fleury was a very good and intelligent miniſter, and upon the whole purſued the real intereſt of France. He was honeſt, ſincere, religious, and moral; qualifications and virtues which, when united (and it is to be wiſhed they were oftener found in miniſters) will ever, without even extraordinary and over-ſhining abilities and talents, make ſtateſmen ſerve their country the better; becauſe they then act upon principle, and think they are accountable for their actions to more than man, and have more than that vague and vain love of fame and popularity, or fear of puniſhment in this world, to incite and ſpur them to the performance and execution of good in themſelves, and the prevention of evil in others; all which miniſters have much in their power to do, when power falls into the hands of men of abilities, application, and good morals; which muſt ever take their ſpring from real religion, and a belief and hope of a future reward, and the fear of the like puniſhment. Such was Cardinal Fleury in the beginning of his appearance in public, then preceptor to Lewis XV. and during that time he inſtilled into his prince thoſe real principles of religion which very apparently, upon many occaſions, animate that monarch. He was a good miniſter to France,

becauſe he confined himſelf to her natural ſtrength, the encouragement of her manufactures, and the improvement of the intrinſic and natural advantages with which Providence has bleſſed that kingdom above all the reſt of Europe; not vainly attempting to make it go out from itſelf, in forcing it to be, what nature and its ſituation never deſigned it, the firſt maritime power; becauſe then it would naturally weaken its military ſtrength, which is very neceſſary to ſupport itſelf againſt the powerful kingdoms that ſurround it, and are not without reaſon jealous of its too much increaſing power: beſides, a well regulated and diſciplined military force is very neceſſary to keep ſo lively a people in due order and ſubordination.

He kept France in peace very near his whole adminiſtration, which was above twenty-ſeven years, except a ſmall interval of a ſort of war in 1734; and that, by his very able head, and humane diſpoſition, he hindered from ſpreading, and finiſhed without making it general, and of courſe prevented a devaſtation and ſlaughter of mankind. It is true, upon the death of the emperor, the queen of Hungary's father, he was, ſomehow or other, brought into a war in his very old age, with the reſt of the Germanic princes, about the diviſion of the territories of that illuſtrious and magnanimous princeſs; ſoon after which he died, at the age of eighty-four.

In all human probability, had he lived, and retained his parts and underſtanding, which is not very common at ſo very great an age, he would have finiſhed it much ſooner. France in that war was very ſucceſsful in Flanders, though not in Germany, or by ſea; and, in the writer's opinion, it was no ways advantageous to France upon the whole; for ſhe received more real benefit by that moſt ſenſible treaty whereby ſhe acquired Lorrain, made by this great and honeſt miniſter, than by all its conqueſts of that rich and fertile country of Auſtrian Flanders.

In a word, moſt governments have more territory and country than they improve and make good uſe of.

Some account of Mrs. Thomas, the celebrated Corinna; from the 12th volume, or Supplement to the General Biographical Dictionary, lately publiſhed.

THOMAS (Mrs.) known to the world by the poetical name of Corinna, was the child of an ancient and infirm parent, who gave her life when he was dying himſelf, and to whoſe unhappy conſtitution ſhe was ſole heireſs. From her very birth, which happened in 1675, ſhe was afflicted with fevers and defluxions, and, being overnurſed, her conſtitution was ſo delicate and tender, that, had ſhe not been of a gay diſpoſition and poſſeſſed of a vigorous mind, ſhe muſt have been more unhappy than ſhe actually was.

Her father dying when ſhe was ſcarce two years old, and her mother not knowing his real circumſtances, as he was ſuppoſed from the ſplendour of his manner of life to be very rich, ſome inconveniences were incurred, in beſtowing upon

upon him a pompous funeral which in thoſe times was faſhionable. The mother of our poeteſs, in the bloom of eighteen, was condemned to the arms of this man, upwards of ſixty, upon the ſuppoſition of his being wealthy, but in which ſhe was ſoon miſerably deceived. She diſpoſed of two houſes her huſband kept, one in town, the other in the county of Eſſex, and retired into a private, but decent country lodging. The houſe where ſhe boarded was an eminent clothworker's in the county of Surry, but the people in the houſe proved very diſagreeable. The lady had no converſation to divert her; the landlord was an illiterate man, and the reſt of the family brutiſh, and unmannerly. At laſt Mrs. Thomas attracted the notice of Dr. Glyſſon, who obſerving her at church very ſplendidly dreſſed, ſolicited her acquaintance. He was a valuable piece of antiquity, being then, 1683, 100 years of age. His perſon was tall, his bones very large, his hair like ſnow, a venerable aſpect, and a complexion which might ſhame the bloom of fifteen. He enjoyed a ſound judgment, and a memory ſo tenacious, and clear, that his company was very engaging. His viſits greatly alleviated the ſolitude of this lady. The laſt viſit he made to Mrs. Thomas, he drew on, with much attention, a pair of rich Spaniſh leather gloves, emboſt on the backs and tops with gold embroidery, and fringed round with gold. The lady could not help expreſſing her curioſity, to know the hiſtory of thoſe gloves, which he ſeemed to touch with ſo much reſpect. He anſwered, "I do reſpect them, for the laſt time I had the honour of approaching my miſtreſs, queen Elizabeth, ſhe pulled them from her own royal hands, ſaying, here Glyſſon, wear them for my ſake. I have done ſo with veneration, and never drew them on, but when I had a mind to honour thoſe whom I viſit, as I now do you; and ſince you love the memory of my royal miſtreſs, take them, and preſerve them carefully when I am gone." The doctor then went home, and died in a few days.

This gentleman's death left her again without a companion, and an uneaſineſs hung upon her, viſible to the people of the houſe; who gueſſing the cauſe to proceed from ſolitude, recommended to her acquaintance another phyſician, of a different caſt from the former. He was denominated by them a conjurer, and was ſaid to be capable of raiſing the devil. This circumſtance diverted Mrs. Thomas, who imagined that the man whom they called a conjurer, muſt have more ſenſe than they underſtood. The doctor was invited to viſit her, and appeared in a greaſy black grogram, which he called his ſcholar's coat; a long beard; and other marks of a philoſophical negligence. He brought all his little mathematical trinkets, and played over his tricks for the diverſion of the lady, whom, by a private whiſper, he let into the ſecrets as he performed them, that ſhe might ſee there was nothing of magic in the caſe. The two moſt remarkable articles of his performance were, firſt lighting a candle at a glaſs of cold water; performed by touching the brim before with phoſphorus, a chymical fire which is preſerved in water and burns there; and next reading the ſmalleſt print by a candle of ſix in

the pound, at 100 yards diſtance in the open air, and darkeſt night. This was performed by a large concave glaſs, with a deep pointed focus, quick-ſilvered on the backſide, and ſet in tin, with a ſocket for a candle, ſconce faſhion, and hung up againſt a wall. While the flame of the candle was diametrically oppoſite to the center, the rays, equally diverging, gave ſo powerful a light as is ſcarce credible; but on the leaſt variation of the focus the charm ceaſed.

The lady, diſcerning in this man a genius which might be improved to better purpoſes than deceiving the country people, deſired him not to hide his talents, but to puſh himſelf in the world by the abilities of which he ſeemed poſſeſſed. "Madam, ſaid he, I am now a fiddle to aſſes; but I am finiſhing a great work which will make thoſe aſſes fiddle to me." She then aſked what the work might be? He replied. "His life was at ſtake if it took air; but he found her a lady of ſuch uncommon candour and good ſenſe, that he ſhould make no difficulty in committing his life and hope to her keeping." All women are naturally fond of being truſted with ſecrets: this was Mrs. Thomas's failing; the doctor found it out, and made her pay dear for her curioſity. "I have been, continued he, many years in ſearch of the philoſopher's ſtone, and long maſter of the ſmaragdine table of Hermes Triſmegiſtus; the green and red dragons of Raymond Lully have alſo been obedient to me, and the illuſtrious ſages themſelves deign to viſit me; yet it is but ſince I had the honour to be known to your ladyſhip, that I have been ſo fortunate as to obtain the grand ſecret of projection. I tranſmuted ſome lead I pulled off my window laſt night into this bit of gold." Pleaſed with the ſight of this, and having a natural propenſion to the ſtudy, the lady ſnatched it out of the philoſopher's hand, and aſked why he had not more? He replied, "It was all the lead he could find." She then commanded her daughter to bring a parcel of lead which lay in the cloſet, and, giving it to the chymiſt, deſired him to tranſmute it into gold on the morrow. He undertook it, and the next day brought her an ingot which weighed two ounces, which with the utmoſt ſolemnity he avowed was the very individual lead ſhe gave him, tranſmuted to gold.

She began now to engage him in ſerious diſcourſe; and finding, by his replies, that he wanted money to make more powder, ſhe enquired how much would make a ſtock that would maintain itſelf? He replied, fifty pounds, after nine months, would produce a million. She then begged the ingot of him, which he proteſted had been tranſmuted from lead, and, fluſhed with the hopes of ſucceſs, hurried to town to know whether the ingot was true gold, which proved fine beyond the ſtandard. The lady, now fully convinced of the truth of the empyric's declarations, took fifty pounds out of the hands of a banker, and intruſted him with it. The only difficulty, which remained, was, how to carry on the work without ſuſpicion, it being ſtrictly prohibited at that time. He was therefore reſolved to take a little houſe in another county, at a few miles diſtance from London, where he was to build a public laboratory,

ry, as a profeſt chymiſt, and deal in ſuch medicines as were moſt vendible, by the ſale of which to the apothecaries, the expence of the houſe was to be defrayed during the operation. The widow was accounted the houſe-keeper, and the doctor and his man boarded with her; to which ſhe added this precaution, that the laboratory with the two lodging-rooms over it, in which the doctor and his man lay, was a different wing of the building from that where ſhe and her little daughter, and maid-ſervant, reſided; and as ſhe knew ſome time muſt elapſe before any profit could be expected, ſhe managed with the utmoſt frugality. The doctor mean time acted the part of a tutor to miſs in arithmetic, latin, and mathematics, to which ſhe diſcovered the ſtrongeſt propenſity.

All things being properly diſpoſed for the grand operation, the vitriol furnace was ſet to work, which, requiring the moſt intenſe heat for ſeveral days, unhappily ſet fire to the houſe; the ſtairs were conſumed in an inſtant, and as it ſurpriſed them all in their firſt ſleep, it was a happy circumſtance that no life periſhed. This unlucky accident was 300l. loſs to Mrs. Thomas; yet ſtill the grand project was in a fair way of ſucceeding in the other wing of the building. But one misfortune is often followed by another; the next Sunday evening, while ſhe was reading to and inſtructing her little family, a ſudden and violent report, like a diſcharge of a cannon, was heard: the houſe, being timber, rocked like a cradle, and the family were all thrown from their chairs on the ground. They looked with the greateſt amazement on each other, not gueſſing the cauſe, when the operator, pretending to revive, fell to ſtamping, tearing his hair, and raving like a madman, crying out undone, undone, loſt and undone for ever. He ran directly to the athanor, when, unlocking the door, he found the machine ſplit quite in two; the eggs broke, and the precious almagamum which they contained was ſcattered like ſand among the aſhes. Mrs. Thomas's eyes were now ſufficiently opened to diſcern the impoſture, and with a very ſerene countenance ſhe told the empyric, that accidents would happen, but means might be fallen upon to repair this fatal diſappointment. The doctor, obſerving her ſo ſerene, imagined ſhe would grant him more money to complete his ſcheme; but ſhe ſoon diſappointed his expectation, by ordering him to be gone, and made him a preſent of five guineas, leſt his deſperate circumſtances ſhould induce him to take ſome violent means of providing for himſelf.

Whether deluded by a real hope of finding out the philoſopher's ſtone, or from an innate principle of villainy, cannot be determined; but he did not ceaſe his purſuit, and ſtill indulged the golden deluſion. He now found means to work upon the credulity of an old miſer, who, upon the ſtrength of his pretenſions, gave him his daughter in marriage, and embarked all his hoarded treaſure, which was very conſiderable, in the ſame chimerical adventure. In a word, the miſer's ſtock was alſo loſt, the empyric himſelf, and the daughter reduced to beggary. This unhappy affair broke the miſer's

heart, who did not many weeks ſurvive the loſs of his caſh. The doctor alſo put a miſerable end to his life, by drinking poiſon, and left his wife with two young children, in a ſtate of beggary. But to return to Mrs. Thomas. The poor lady ſuffered on this occaſion a great deal of inward anguiſh; ſhe was aſhamed of having reduced her fortune, and impoveriſhed her child, by liſtening to the inſinuations of a madman. Time and patience at laſt overcame it; and when her health, which by this accident had been impaired, was reſtored to her, ſhe began to ſtir amongſt her huſband's great clients. She took a houſe in Bloomſbury, and by means of good œconomy, and an elegant appearance, was ſuppoſed to be better in the world than ſhe really was. Her huſband's clients received her like one riſen from the dead: they came to viſit her, and promiſed to ſerve her. At laſt the duke of Montague adviſed her to let lodgings, which way of life ſhe declined, as her talents were not ſuited for dealing with ordinary lodgers; but, added ſhe, "if I knew any family who deſired ſuch a conveniency, I would readily accommodate them." I take you at your word, replied the duke; "I will become your ſole tenant: nay, don't ſmile, for I am in earneſt: I love a little more freedom than I can enjoy at home, and I may come ſometimes and eat a bit of mutton, with four or five honeſt fellows, whoſe company I delight in." The bargain was bound, and proved matter of fact, though on a deeper ſcheme than drinking a bottle; and his grace was to paſs in the houſe for Mr. Freeman of Hertfordſhire. In a few days he ordered a dinner for his beloved friends, Jack and Tom, Will and Ned, good honeſt country fellows, as his grace called them. They came at the time appointed; but how ſurprized was the widow, when ſhe ſaw the duke of Devonſhire, lords Buckingham and Dorſet, and a certain viſcount, with Sir William Dutton Colt, under theſe feigned names. After ſeveral times meeting at this lady's houſe, the noble perſons, who had a high opinion of her integrity, intruſted her with the grand ſecret, which was nothing leſs than the project for the revolution.

Though theſe meetings were held as private as poſſible, yet ſuſpicions aroſe, and Mrs. Thomas's houſe was narrowly watched; but the meſſengers, who were no enemies to the cauſe, betrayed their truſt, and ſuffered the noblemen to meet unmoleſted, or at leaſt without any dread of apprehenſion.

The revolution being effected, and the ſtate become more ſettled, that place of rendezvous was quitted; the noblemen took leave of the lady, with promiſes of obtaining a penſion, or ſome place in the houſhold for her, as her zeal in that cauſe highly merited; beſides ſhe had a very good claim to ſome appointment, having been ruined by the ſhutting up the exchequer. But alas! court promiſes proved an aerial foundation, and the noble peers never thought of her more. The duke of Montague indeed made offers of ſervice, and being captain of the band of penſioners, ſhe aſked him to admit Mr. Gwynnet, a gentleman who had made love to her daughter, into ſuch a poſt. This he promiſed, but upon theſe terms, that

that her daughter ſhould aſk him for it. The widow thanked him, and not ſuſpecting that any deſign was covered under this offer, concluded herſelf ſure of ſucceſs: but how amazed was ſhe, to find her daughter, whom ſhe had bred in the moſt paſſive ſubjection, and who had never diſcovered the leaſt inſtance of diſobedience, abſolutely refuſed to aſk any ſuch favour of his grace. She could not be prevailed upon neither by flattery, nor threatening; and continuing ſtill obſtinate in her reſolution, her mother obliged her to explain herſelf upon the point of her refuſal. She told her then, that the duke of Montague had already made an attack upon her; that his deſigns were diſhonourable; and that if ſhe ſubmitted to aſk his grace one favour, he would reckon himſelf ſecure of another in return, which he would endeavour to accompliſh by the baſeſt means.

This explanation was too ſatisfactory: who does not ſee the meanneſs of ſuch an ungenerous conduct? He had made uſe of the mother as a tool for carrying on political deſigns; he found her diſtreſs; and, as a recompence for her ſervices, and under the pretence of mending her fortune, attempted the virtue of her daughter, and would provide for her on no other terms, but at the price of her child's innocence. In the mean time, the young Corinna, a poetical name given her by Mr. Dryden, continued to improve her mind by reading the politeſt authors.

We have already ſeen that ſhe was addreſſed, upon honourable terms, by Mr Gwynnet, of the Middle-Temple, ſon of a gentleman in Glouceſterſhire. Upon his firſt diſcovering his paſſion to Corinna, ſhe had honour enough to remonſtrate to him the inequality of their fortune, as her affairs were then in a very perplexed ſituation. This objection was ſoon ſurmounted by a lover, eſpecially as his father had given him poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of his eſtate, and leave to pleaſe himſelf.

Mr. Gwynnet no ſooner obtained this, than he came to London, and claimed Corinna's promiſe of marriage: but her mother being then in a very weak condition, ſhe could not abandon her in that diſtreſs, to die among ſtrangers. She therefore told Mr. Gwynnet, that as ſhe had not thought ſixteen years long in waiting for him, he could not think ſix months long in expectation of her. He replied with a deep ſigh, "Six months, at this time, my Corinna, is more than ſixteen years have been; you put it off now, and God will put it off for ever." It proved as he had foretold; he next day went into the country, made his will, ſickened, and died April the ſixteenth, 1711, leaving his Corinna the bequeſt of 600l. and, adds ſhe, "Sorrow has been my food ever ſince." Had ſhe providentially married him, ſhe had been ſecure from the inſults of poverty; but her duty to her parent was more prevalent than conſiderations of convenience.

After the death of her lover, ſhe was barbarouſly uſed: his brother ſtifled the will, which compelled her to have recourſe to law; he ſmothered the old gentleman's conveyance deed, by which he was enabled to make a bequeſt,

and

and offered a large ſum of money to any perſon who would undertake to blacken Corinna's character; but wicked as the world is, he found none ſo completely abandoned, as to perjure themſelves for the ſake of this bribe. At laſt, to ſhew her reſpect to the memory of her deceaſed lover, ſhe conſented to an accommodation with his brother, to receive 200 l. down, and 200 l. at the year's end. The firſt payment was made, and diſtributed inſtantly amongſt her mother's creditors; but when the other became due, he bid her defiance, ſtood ſuit on his own bond, and held out four terms. He carried it from one court to another, till at laſt it was brought to the bar of the houſe of lords; and that being a tribunal where the chicanery of lawyers can have no weight, he thought proper to pay the money without a hearing: The gentlemen of the long robe had made her ſign an inſtrument, that they ſhould receive the money and pay themſelves; after they had laid their cruel hands upon it, of the 200 l. the poor diſtreſſed lady received but thirteen pounds ſixteen ſhillings, which reduced her to the neceſſity of abſconding from her creditors, and ſtarving in an obſcure corner, till ſhe was betrayed by a falſe friend, and hurried to jail. Beſides all the other calamities of Corinna, ſhe had ever a bad ſtate of health, occaſioned by a ſurpriſing accident, ſwallowing the middle bone of the wing of a large fowl, being above three inches long. Her uncommon caſe was given into the college of phyſicians.

Under all theſe calamities did poor Corinna labour; and it is difficult to produce a life crowded with greater evils. The ſmall fortune which her father left her, by the imprudence of her mother, was ſoon ſquandered; ſhe no ſooner began to taſte of life, than an attempt was made upon her innocence. When ſhe was about being happy in the arms of her amiable lover, Mr. Gwynnet, he was ſnatched from her by an immature fate. Amongſt her other misfortunes, ſhe laboured under the diſpleaſure of Mr. Pope, whom ſhe had offended, and who took care to place her in his Dunciad. Mr. Pope once paid her a viſit, in company with Henry Cromwell, Eſq; whoſe letters by ſome accident, fell into her hands, with ſome of Pope's anſwers. As ſoon as that gentleman died, Mr. Curl found means to wheedle them from her, and immediately committed them to the preſs. This ſo enraged Mr. Pope, that he never forgave her.

Not many months after our poeteſs had been releaſed from her gloomy habitation, ſhe took a ſmall lodging in Fleet-ſtreet, where ſhe died on the third of February, 1730, in the fifty-ſixth year of her age, and was two days after decently interred in the church of St. Bride's.

Corinna, conſidered as an authoreſs, is of the ſecond rate; ſhe had not ſo much wit as Mrs. Behn, or Mrs. Manley, nor had ſo happy a power of intellectual painting: but her poetry is ſoft and delicate, her letters ſprightly and entertaining. Her poems were publiſhed, after her death, by Curl; and two volumes of letters which paſſed between her and Mr. Gwynnet.

Anec-

Anecdotes of Monſ. de Voltaire, in his preſent ſituation at Fernex in Burgundy, near Geneva.

THE following anecdotes are ſaid to be authentic; it is, however, evident, that the collector of them is not an enthuſiaſtic admirer of the celebrated writer, whom he profeſſes to characterize.

IN the preface to an ingenious volume, lately publiſhed, under the modeſt title of Bagatelles, I lately ſaw the following obſervation, which my acquaintance with Voltaire has truly, too truly verified.

" Authors are, in general, the reverſe of all other objects; they magnify, by diſtance; they diminiſh by approach: it reminds me of a city built on a hill, and in perſpective; where the towers, the ſpires, and lofty parts, are ſeen with admiration; but, on a nearer approach, we diſcover narrow ſtreets, little alleys, and offenſive objects perhaps; till we are, at laſt, taught to wiſh we never had quitted our firſt diſtance; and wiſh, though in vain, to be thus happily deceived, as before."

As this great author had ever in his eye, the realizing a proper fortune to retire upon, he has, ſomehow or other, accompliſhed it; for, at preſent, he poſſeſſes a vaſt tract of land in that part of Burgundy properly called the Pais de Gex: which ſtretches almoſt to that gate of Geneva which opens into France, and that part of Switzerland bounding on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the lake

It is plain, by anecdotes delivered to us from Berlin, that, during his long reſidence there, and enjoying thoſe ſubſtantial emoluments, which that monarch denies even to his deliverers, the military gentlemen, Voltaire at laſt ſo enraged the king by perpetual accounts of his mean behaviour; that one thing bringing on another, and joined to a quarrel with the great Maupertuis, then at the head of the academy of ſciences in Berlin, Voltaire was diſmiſſed with a genteel kind of diſgrace; being ordered to leave the golden key he wore, and to depart in twenty-four hours.

It appeared that out of the ample allowance of the king of Pruſſia, he had remitted every dollar home; though his majeſty gave him a more ample penſion than uſual, to juſtify his affectionate choice of this boſom friend, by ſuppoſing he would diffuſe it among his ſubjects; and thereby gain, if not a ſettled, yet a tranſitory kind of popularity.

The king lived to find the fallacy of his judgment in this particular, at leaſt; and it is well known, that this great little man, when the court went into deep mourning on ſome near occaſion, borrowed of ſome friend a ſuit that fitted him, rather than be at the expence of making a new one.

That he was vexed to be found out (and his good friend Maupertuis took eſpecial care to enflame the bill) appears by the ſevere couplet or two left on his table, together with the king's picture and clef d'or; the purport of which was:

" I received it with affection,
" I return it with diſdain;

" As does a once fond lover to
" his favourite,
" When his affection is turn'd
" to hate."

This is the purport, if not the exact tranſlation. The king, as I heard, treated it with that proper contempt which Richard does the billet put into his hands the evening before the battle; which, as Sternhold and Hopkins have it on another occaſion, may be either ſung or ſaid.

Voltaire was afterwards equally well received at the court of Manheim; and it was during his ſtay here that he wrote his tragedy of Olympia; and, with his uſual accuracy, lays the ſcene in the temple of Epheſus, two hundred years, at leaſt, after that famous ſtructure was deſtroyed.

And this reminds me of a ſtrange anſwer he gave to old general Furſtenberg at the ſame court; who, giving him an hint, and with great diffidence to ſo great an author; that a certain battle in his Hiſtory of the War, was marked down as in the month of April, when really it happened in October; made anſwer, " Well fool! it was fought then; no matter when." What dependance on ſuch a volatile hiſtorian?

The ſame general was in England, as engineer-general to the Heſſians; was governor to the preſent landgrave, during his minority; had great rank at the elector palatine's, as commandant of Manheim; and yet could not eſcape the pointed ribaldry of our great author.

One ſmall circumſtance at the court of Berlin ſeems neceſſary, ere I drop the curtain there; that, as it came out afterwards, his majeſty certainly availed himſelf (and perhaps it was his original view in the ſaid invitation) of his ſtay there, to form certain odes, ſince made public under the title of Philoſophé ſans Soucie; and which, if not Voltaire's, were corrected by him; on the quarrel the ſecret appeared, and Voltaire was rude enough to ſay, " I was his old waſherwoman, and was ſent for only to clean his dirty ſheets."

Having been ſo long accuſtomed to dethrone kings and overthrow empires on paper, he thinks himſelf juſtified in realizing theſe his chimeras; and this has been but a too general complaint at all courts, that the miniſtry could not quietly go on in their work for him.

When he left the palatine court, he retired to his new purchaſe near Geneva. Various were the reaſons given for his ſituation; namely, that he could dodge his perſecutors from one country to another; being in an hour either in Geneva, Switzerland, or Savoy. But where ſuch property is, the ſtake is too great—for his perſon he would leſs value than an inch of his acquiſitions.

No author but himſelf ever perhaps knew how to out-wit booksellers; even thoſe of Holland have felt his ſuperiority of traffic; nay, while he has ſold a copy at Paris, he would re-ſell the ſame to others at Leipſig, the Hague, Bruſſels, Leige, Francfort, and elſewhere; with the addition only of a new title-page, or different introduction.

He has a rented houſe, on the territory of Geneva, which he ſeldom viſits; and the real cauſe of diſlike

diſlike was being prevented exhibiting a play there to the marſhal duke de Richlieu; for at the inſtant, (which made the ſlight more conſpicuous) they were going to lift the curtain, a caveat in form came from the ſtates, and too powerfully attended to be gain-ſaid.

At Fernex, his place of reſidence, he found a large old French chateau, which he razed to the ground; and in its ſtead, has erected a very noble ſeat-like houſe; but preſerving ſome aukward gateways, and turrets, the beauty of the building is much deformed on that front which faces the great road to Gex; and the back front is only viſible to thoſe walking there.

Notwithſtanding his long ſtay in England, and his pretended attention to, and affectation of our taſte in planting, building, and gardening, every part of his demeſne is equally frenchified as any citizen's plat of ground in the environs of Paris. All his woods are cut into walks ſtar-faſhion; and all the variety conſiſts in its being a ſtar of greater or leſs magnitude, with more or fewer rays.

Being the firſt poſſeſſions he ever enjoyed, he takes all methods at table to inform his gueſts that every diſh comes off the territoire; and as a gallows is the mark of a ſeigneurie or manor in France, he is not wanting alſo to inform you that he has as many potencies as would ſtring half the monarchs in Europe; and who, as he often ſays, deſerve no other or better exaltation.

He ſeems fond (politically ſo, perhaps; becauſe the Engliſh at Geneva are his beſt friends in all kind of ſubſcriptions, witneſs his edition of Corneille) to recount the honours he received, and connexions he made in England; and recounts that one evening all the genius's were aſſembled in compliment to him, at the earl of Peterborough's on Parſon's Green. As he had read and admired Addiſon's works, more than any other, he was happy to plant himſelf near ſo great a man, himſelf being then a ſtripling.

It ſo happened our Engliſh author was in one of his fits of taciturnity, but had drank too much, even ſo as to be obliged to diſcharge ſome ſhare of what he had loaded his ſtomach with; when the evening ended, and the company ſeparating, Voltaire waited on Mr. Addiſon to the coach; confeſſed his obligation at having had the honour to ſit ſo near him all the time; but added, "That he was ſorry to ſay the beſt thing which came out of his mouth that night was the claret."

It was at the ſame time he claims the merit of furniſhing Mr. Pope with the metaphor of his ape in the firſt Eſſay on Man; and even ſays, that many other of the beſt philoſophical maxims were his own; particularly all that portion of the third eſſay, which gives the hiſtory of natural government.

However his pen now may be unequal to tracts of length or ſolidity; his vein for the bon-mot and quick repartee remains, and moſt likely will to the laſt; one proof of this will ſerve for the preſent.

At the rehearſal of one of his own tragedies, Mr. Cramer, bookſeller

ſeller at Geneva (and Voltaire's own immediate publiſher) was finiſhing his part, which was to end with ſome dying ſentences; when Voltaire all deſpotic over thoſe he thinks his dependants, cries out aloud, "Cramer, you lived like a prince for the four preceding acts, but at the fifth you die like a bookſeller." Dr. Tronchin, the Boerhaave of this age, being preſent, could not help in kindneſs interfering; adding with all, "Why, Monſ. de Voltaire, can you ever expect to have gentlemen to be at this expence of dreſſes, and fatigue of getting ſuch long parts, if you thus continue to upbraid them? On the contrary, I think they all deſerve the greateſt encouragement at your hands; and as to my friend Cramer, I declare, that, as far as I am a judge, he dies with the ſame dignity he lived." Voltaire, who deteſts advice, or being informed by an inferior (for an author is, in his eye, beyond even an Æſculapius were he living) made this cool anſwer; "Pr'ythee, doctor, when you have got kings to kill, kill them your own way; let me kill mine as I pleaſe."

Mr. Voltaire's theatre is in one of his out-offices, is neatly fitted up, and may contain two hundred perſons; two changes of ſcenes anſwer all the ends of French tragedy or comedy; tho' they begin to follow the Engliſh cuſtom of late, and think unity of time and place not eſſential in the leaſt to good plays.

Indeed, if my fancy ſtretches ſo far, as one night to imagine a parcel of deal planks to be Athens, the next evening Paris, and the day after old Rome; I may, by the ſame change of ideas, change the ſcenes too; and equally imagine the buſineſs of three days to be comprized into three hours; as that incidents of time and chance ſhould fall into the compaſs of three hours; which it is impoſſible ſhould have occurred in as many days.

But as French tragedy all centers in palace-plot, and cabinet-conſpiracy; and as all their ſpecies of comedy falls into the path of parlour-intrigue, their ſtage may ſtill ſupport this folly half a century longer. The Engliſh being by their nature Ubiquarians, and ſeldom in one place long, muſt have painted canvas as quick as their ideas, or they would fall aſleep.

To return to our little theatre at Fernex: the attendants are made up of the butler, coachman, groom, &c. I have caught the laughing dairy-maid in the habit of a prieſteſs: and the old cook was found in the fact of being for that night a young veſtal.

But what abates the whole pleaſure, is the frequent and outrageous interruptions of Mr. Voltaire, who, when any paſſage goes wrong, never fails to proclaim it: and will croſs the ſtage in his night-cap and gown to ſcold at an empreſs, or pull the cap of a queen.

Great wits, ſays a great author, are ſurely allied to madneſs; one would imagine this who ſaw our epic-writer on ſuch a night. I remember his coachman not entering time enough to lay him down gently in the hour of death, in the character of a Turkiſh ſlave, he changed his tragedy part into comic

comic reaſoning; and whimſically aſked him for a receipt in full of all demands; "for I am ſure," ſaid Voltaire, "I muſt be in your debt, or you would not have uſed me ſo, as to let me die thus like a beggar."

After the moſt ſerious concluſion of a tragedy, or refined finiſhing of a comedy, this great man renders himſelf truly little, by ſome jeſt to the audience, lower, if poſſible, than a merry andrew's at Bartholomew fair.

And ſo little does he think muſic a part of the entertainment, that, when Mr. Hayes, now maſter of the king's band in Dublin, made up a pleaſing ſet in his orcheſtra, he always ſhortened their ingenuity by the warning-bell; or would be laughing in the pit or boxes with ladies ſo very loud, as to drown all efforts of harmony.

This is rather the more ſurpriſing, as he pays great attention to his niece, madame Dennis; who plays the harpſichord equal, if not ſuperior, to any profeſſor of the ſcience.

And, ſince I have mentioned one lady of his houſhold, I am called upon to inform the reader that the deſcendant of the great Corneille was at the eve of her ſtipend, as a penſioner in ſome convent in France; when he, with no ſmall labour, found her out; and having married her to a French officer, one Depuy, Voltaire ſeemingly publiſhed Corneille's works by ſubſcription, to make her a fortune equal to her huſband; but, from many other concurrent circumſtances in his life of avarice and penury, I do really believe Voltaire ſhared the profits, which I hear amounted to near 5000l. ſterling.

When we conſider how many crowned heads eſpouſed this undertaking, this ſum leſs ſurprizes; but this we know, that where (as the empreſs-queen for inſtance) any great perſonage ſubſcribed for an hundred, and only in politeneſs took one copy, he ſold all the reſt at a market price, and ſo trafficked with the generoſity of his beſt friends.

The young couple live under his roof; and though never married himſelf, yet does he love to ſee others happy in that ſtate; having, as I heard him ſay, joined together eighteen couple of ſervants, during his reſidence at Fernex: ſcarce then above five years.

He has other good houſes on his eſtates; ſuch as Tournaye, &c. for the French mark their ſmalleſt demeſnes with a chateau; though perhaps the ſaid building ſhall never be furniſhed or finiſhed.

Under theſe articles of finiſhing and furniſhing, no houſes are perhaps ſo inſufferably defective as the country houſes in France: thoſe who can afford to have two houſes (namely, town and country) ſend all their beſt moveables to Paris; while thoſe whoſe circumſcribed fortunes never permit them that advantage, live in farms; which being tricked off with a few turrets and pinnacles, bears the name of chateau always.

From this vanity of a little piece of property, occurs that perpetual jumble in the names of families, ſo as hardly to be able ever to diſtinguiſh one branch from another: for ſhould a lord of a manor have ten ſons, one takes the name of Du-bois (of the wood); a ſecond de

de la Haye (of the hedge); a third de la Tour, (of the tower); a fourth de la Fontaine (of the fountain); till, after every part of the houſe and garden is ranſacked for a freſh appellation, ſhould the good lady bring another, they would call him, rather than not give ſome Nom de Guerre at the chriſtening, de la Jartiere, from one of his mother's garters.

But to return to Fernex: the pariſh church forming part of the quadrangle or grand cour to the old chateau; and Voltaire being thereby intercepted a view of the lake, fairly ſawed the church in two, without any ſpiritual licence for ſo doing; or, without a with your leave, or by your leave of the biſhop or dean; but, as a ſalvo to the injury, he has put in very large capitals, diſtinguiſhable from the great road to the town of Gex (and ſo purpoſely intended) theſe words:

Deo Erexit Voltaire.

Many epigrams, ſonnets, and madrigals have been wrote on the occaſion, but not one worthy of inſertion; ſuffice it, that as the rule of his conduct is, in general, every ſchool-boy can throw his ſquib of animadverſion.

On the diſſolution of the order of jeſuits, and of courſe their diſſipation, Voltaire ſelected one to be his table-companion, and fellow cheſs-player. The poor Pere Adam (that is his name) is forced to eat his pudding, and hold his tongue; for never was a Welſh curate ſo much the butt of his ſquire's arrows, as is this chaplain of his.

I give him a title here Voltaire never intended him; but I know that the accidental reſidence of this jeſuit in his houſe, has frequently given an handle for many to think and ſay, that, however ludicrous our epic is in public, that in private he is not without his fears; which he proves by having this reverend chaplain in his houſe and at his elbow; whereas it is well known that both the veſpers and mattins of monſ. de Voltaire are cheſs and back-gammon, piquet or a game at quadrille.

When he invited the poor Pere Adam to his houſe, it is ſaid he was ingenuous enough to add, "if you can dare to live with a man who profeſſes himſelf to have no religion at all, or, if any thing, is a ſtricter diſciple of Confucius than you can be of your humble maſter, then come to me."

He ſeldom goes to bed till day-break, drinking coffee almoſt every half hour, and playing at cheſs; next day he is never viſible till noon, and then diſagreeably ſo; having but too often a dirty banjan, and unpowdered tye-wig, with the knots before; and a cap over that, either of ſilk or velvet embroidered; and being naturally haſty and waſpiſh, I am often reminded of Lear as repreſented in a ſtrolling company, where the wardrobe furniſhes the ſame ſuit for that inſane king, as for the Mahomet of ſome Turkiſh tragedy, incomplete at leaſt, and at beſt very ſhabby.

The Jeſuit reſiding with Monſ. de Voltaire being rather a man of ſlight, than ſtriking genius, often gives this head of the family an handle to make him the butt of converſation; however, the Pere Adam follows the

the old adage of, "eating his pudding, and holding his tongue."

Voltaire ſays of him often, *Il eſt Pere Adam, mais pas la premier des hommes.* He may be Father Adam, but is far from being the firſt of men.

To draw up the curtain of Berlin once more (which ſeemed already dropt) I ſhould inform the reader that Maupertuis and he had a real quarrel, and what the king of Pruſſia began in a political jeſt, had near ended in a very ſerious manner.

Indeed, the phlegmatic diſpoſition of Maupertuis, (a Norman) was a proper ſubject for the king, in his hours of humour and raillery, to play off his artillery on, by means of the ſaid Maupertuis, againſt the vivacity of a Frenchman, born ſouthward, and differing more from the northern French in the ſeveral provinces of Normandy, Britany, Anjou, &c. than perhaps any country in the globe.

To return, matters were carried ſo high, that Maupertuis ſent a challenge to Voltaire; then ſick in bed. The exact words of his invitation to the field of battle I never ſaw, but his anſwer was almoſt in theſe words.

Monſieur de Maupertuis.

SIR,

I had the honour of your challenge, which I would gladly have accepted, had you given me the choice of my own weapons; being ill a-bed, a ſyringe would have been the moſt proper inſtrument; and that, from your known humanity, I do expect to receive from your ſkilful hands.

But I muſt alſo obſerve to you, that a piſtol ball will kill me, but can have no effect on you; lead will aſſimilate with your brain; and therefore are we not on an equal footing.

I am, with all reſpect,

VOLTAIRE.

The quarrel, by theſe means, ended like that of Dr. Caius and Sir Hugh Evans. It became a party-affair of the moſt laughable kind; ſo that the very boys of Berlin upbraided Monſ. de Maupertuis, for not ſending a ſquirt to Monſ. de Voltaire, inſtead of a challenge with ball and piſtol.

To return to our lord paramount at the *chateau de Fernex*, where he may be truly called ſuch; the gay part of Geneva take delight in viſiting him; but as he knows what is related to them, will reach the ears of their magiſtracy, he never fails ſaying the ſevereſt things an irritated genius can invent.

A gentleman's equipage not coming punctually, who was on a viſit to him, he aſked if the coachman was a Genevite; and being anſwered in the affirmative, he replied, "Oh! there the very ſervants are kings; no wonder you are ſo tyrannically uſed."

At another time, (the reader muſt obſerve that Geneva has no territory) he ſaid, ſuppoſing each free citizen of this great republic had a ſhirt, and would lend it on the occaſion, they might cover their dominion with their own linen.

His houſe is a receptacle for all foreigners; and, as every ſuch viſitor ſtrains his genius to entertain him, no wonder, by ſuch a quick ſucceſſion of all the ſeveral inhabi-

tants of the four quarters of the world, that Voltaire has ſuch an univerſal knowledge of mankind.

His converſation among men generally turns (and too unhappily ſo) on blaſphemous ſubjects; and (which argues a great want of politeneſs) he generally increaſes this vein if any churchmen are preſent; nay, according to their rank, he augments or decreaſes his ſallies of what he falſely calls pleaſantry.

Thus a ſtory which would be a good one for a poor curé or abbé, muſt be enriched for a mitred brow or cardinal; and Pere Adam (the good ſimple Jeſuit) whatever little he may ſay on the occaſion, pays it off in thinking.

Yet, to keep up appearances, he has given an altar to the church adjoining to his houſe, and ſome rich veſtments to the ſacriſty; and will, occaſionally, attend the ſervice; particularly on a wedding, which ſhall happen in his own family.

The Archbiſhop of Troyes dining with him one day, Voltaire was, as uſual, playing off all his artillery againſt the prelate, who was alſo a cardinal. The good divine immediately became the gentleman, and ſaid, "the world have ſuch obligations to men of genius, that a particular allowance is ever made to them, in return for their productions; though I don't doubt yet but Monſ. de Voltaire will be a good convert to us before he dies." Voltaire immediately anſwered, "My lord! if ever I am made a convert of, it muſt be, like St. Paul, on horſeback."

With ladies, he is rather indecent: as with the church, he is but too apt to be ludicrous. Many of his late works will verify this; and I rather think that the ſweepings of his brain, ſo lately publiſhed, are more owing to his flattering bookſeller and his wife; who, like F——r in Dublin, never care if Voltaire or Dean Swift ſuffer, ſo he or they can have veniſon in the proper ſeaſon.

The *ſalle à manger* at Voltaire's is very dirty in general. And you will ſee ſervants waiting in waiſtcoats, and women at work (in not the moſt delicate of needle employment) while company of the firſt rank are at dinner. But his drawing-room, and other apartments, make ample amends for this careleſsneſs; ſcarce any nobleman having a more elegant ſuite of chambers, either for ſtate or convenience.

You would be ſurpriſed to ſee on what ſcraps of paper he writes his beſt hints for material works. I am amazed he can find them in the diſſipated manner they lie. While he writes he always ſits with his back to the fire; which is, perhaps, to ſave his eyes.

When he does dreſs, (which is rare) no man produces a more variegated wardrobe: but ſo eccentric is he, that, in a ſuit of velvet and embroidery, I have ſeen him join the dance of ſome ſervants in the hall, on hearing the violin give the ſummons.

But let me not dare by theſe *minutiæ* to think of leſſening the value of ſo great a maſter of the pen. On the contrary, Dean Swift had, in his private hours, more of this vein than even Voltaire; deſcending often to chuſe mere trifles, in order the better, perhaps, to riſe in ſentiment afterwards. Pope certainly

tainly means this, when he ſo elegantly pays this compliment to lord Bolingbroke:

" Teach me, like thee, in various nature wiſe,
" To fall with dignity, with temper riſe."

There is a monarchical, deſpotic ſtate in this great man, which appears in his minuteſt actions. Thus, at table, he never comes in with the reſt of the company; but will delay about any trifle; and, on entrance, loves to recall all the diſhes, and diſturb every part of the table, with placing and miſ-placing them, after every one elſe has been ſatisfied; which is rather diſagreeable, when the appetite of others has been ſatisfied; nothing being ſo unwelcome as the remnants of diſhes half ſpoiled, and ſcraps of delicacies; which, by theſe means, no longer are ſuch.

Land being cheap in this part of Burgundy (called properly the *pais de Gex*) it is amazing what a quantity of acres he has on his eſtate; and he ſeems to value himſelf on this, in preference to a ſmaller ſhare of territory more cultivated.

He pretends to ſhew a turn for Engliſh improvements, from obſervations he made, or pretended to make in England, when he was there. But the attachment to French ornaments ſtill prevails; and a flower plat and fountain are to him, greater embelliſhments than all the woods and waters of a Chatſworth, a Caſtle-Howard, or a Sturton.

His favourite work is the *Pucelle d'Orleans*; which, in fact, is the Hudibras of the French poetry and language. His picture is often drawn looking on his Henriade, but I believe he has not that affection for it he has for many other of his performances.

Being aſked which of his tragedies he moſt affected, he replied, Olympia; " for the ſame reaſon," ſays he, " that a man is proud of having a child at ſeventy-five."

He has many carriages, according to the French cuſtom, but not one fit to ride in. No nation (elegant as they are at Paris in theſe conveniences) is ſo careleſs diſtant from the metropolis. If you are carried, or (as is the common expreſſion) lifted out of the dirt, it is all they think of; ſtained linings, ragged fringes, broken windows, make up the ſum of a French country equipage; and Mr. Shandy (in a late volume) gives this under his hand in his obſervations, during a French perambulation.

Though Voltaire never would accept a title from any monarch, yet does he much attach himſelf to perſonages ſo adorned; nay, in the very opening of his letters, he will give a preference of reading to thoſe with ducal coronets over thoſe of common earls, viſcounts, or barons.

He complains much of an unconquerable dryneſs in his habit of body; " which," ſays he, " one day or other, muſt end me;" as if but for that he might live a century longer; and I am told, that in illneſs no man is ſo afraid of the devil's claws as himſelf; inſomuch, that the moſt ignorant and mendicant prieſt can, at that time, have a ſway over him, which, in perfect health, the infallible head of the church would fail of.

The many preſents from the great, of wine, and every delicacy

which ſo many different countries afford, allow him to keep a better table than many of his equals in fortune; and, whether their favours ariſe from fear or love, he is equally gainer.

Moſt people think him, at leaſt, twenty years older than he really is; appearing on the theatre of life ſo early (for he publiſhed at ſixteen) many imagine him a man from that æra; when, in fact, he was only a ſtripling. Nor do I now believe him to be above ſeventy.

However, being one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber to the king, his age may eaſily be aſcertained; for a man cannot enter on ſuch a poſt till of a certain age; and, by the date of his commiſſion, it will appear when he obtained that honour.

His affection to the elector-palatine ſeems beyond that of any other monarch; he reſided with him a year under his roof at Manheim, and had every honour of a prince of the blood; but mingling in politics, the minority there grew jealous of him; and ſo he retired to his territory near Geneva.

The elector had ſeveral buſts of him executed by Mr. Verchetſel, the moſt eminent ſtatuary now living, and who is governor of the ſculpture academy at Manheim; but, to keep him in good humour, ſome ladies of the court were always near him; or he would not have had patience to go through the ceremony of a model.

In ſhort, he is ſuch a mixture of dignity and littleneſs; ſuch a contraſt of the trifler and man of judgment; that he ſeems, as Falſtaff ſays ſo wittily of himſelf, a double man. As his various works prove him the great man, I have only touched on thoſe anecdotes which ſhew him in another light; perhaps, unknown to the world, and which, blended with his other character, make him as he is—a mortal man; and not that deity the minor writers would fain raiſe him to.

If I have been too ſevere, attribute it to a punctuality in my nature; and when he dies, let us ſay of him what Prince Henry ſaid over even his enemy:

"Thy ignominy ſleep with thee in the grave,
"But not remember'd in thy epitaph."

By ignominy, I mean his univerſal diſlike to all religion; in which he is not content (for this I could forgive him) to think only; but he loves to vent his opinion in public; and the world are left to judge, with the attachment people are too apt to have towards men of genius, what an infinite number of proſelytes he is capable of drawing to himſelf in theſe days of libertiniſm, and diſſipation.

Being exiled the kingdom of France (ſome people ſay, only the court) he paſſed over to England, the ſureſt, as the happieſt aſylum, to a gentleman and a genius. He raiſed ſubſcriptions there, unknown to any native; and which in an enemy's country might, or is, indeed, called contributions.

On his wiſhing to return home, on ſome private affairs, he ſtrongly ſolicited the then French miniſtry to obtain leave for ſuch a favour to himſelf; but, however publicly his majeſty might approve and countenance

tenance ſuch recall, the revengeful miniſters were not ſo eaſily reconcileable, but became very ſtrenuous oppoſers of it. But Voltaire (ever an over-match in politics and genius, for theſe his enemies of ſtate) wrote to ſome powerful friends in Germany, and ſuddenly got himſelf inveſted with a public character; I think it was either from the electorate of Cologn, or prince biſhop of Liege.

On obtaining this rank, he immediately ſet off for the court of Verſailles, having previouſly got his credentials acknowledged before he preſented himſelf in public.

On his firſt appearance, the reader may well imagine what a buzz there was throughout the drawing-room of ſuch an inquiſitive court; and of courſe, his old enemies, from curioſity, and not affection, incircled him, and began, as uſual, their congratulations, each equally endeavouring to exculpate himſelf, and in general themſelves, from any hand in his baniſhment. After hearing what they all had to offer, he ſaid, "By being thus exiled my country ſo long, I am incapable of underſtanding your language now, with preciſion. But, if you will talk with my ſecretary here, or any of my train, they will inform me, when I get home, what kind ſervices you mean to me."

His pardon was ſoon after ſealed, and it is ſaid, that, by this inſolence of his, as alſo his being honoured with a public character, (in which department he might equally ſerve or injure them) that the very miniſtry, once his enemies, were now the firſt leaders to his pardon.

At Manheim (where he reſided after his diſgrace at Berlin, if it may be ſo called, when he choſe his own diſmiſſion) he behaved with ſuch imperiouſneſs, or abſence of mind, that when the elector, who would honour him often with a viſit in his apartments, and even by his own appointment waited on him, he would pretend not to know him; and, but for that ſovereign's inſuperable benevolence, the friendſhip muſt have ended.

A certain Engliſh oculiſt being at Berlin during Voltaire's reſidence there, I will in a few words introduce an anecdote of this chevalier, profeſſor, and member of all the academies in Europe; which, as it is connected a little with Voltaire, is not *outraie* in this letter.

His majeſty of Pruſſia, for ſome reaſons, held the Engliſh then at arm's length, and was ſo little deſirous of pleaſing the country in general, that he would hardly be civil to any particular part of it, though backed with title, or offices of ſtate. Lord D——, Earl St. ——t, the Duke of St. ——, and many great commoners, were then in the city of Berlin, but never once invited to court. Nay, ſo ſlighted were they, that on the Parade (the general reſort of all foreigners, while the guard mounts) the king would publicly ſay to general Keith and lord Marſhal, "What! are your countrymen not gone yet?" Obſerve, as a further proof of his revenge; his ambaſſador at Paris, and the French ambaſſador to his court, were both attainted peers of this kingdom; namely, the lords Marſhal and Tyrconnel; as the own and only

brother of the former was at that time alſo commander in chief of all his forces. But to the point: at the time the Engliſh nobility were thus whimſically excluded the court, our chevalier oculiſt was publicly admitted: nay, to render it more ſatirical againſt us, with double honour, ſuperior to what a perſon of that rank deſerved; however his uſual vanity might deſire, or perhaps expect it. Obſerve, that the ſaid doctor was then ſtrongly ſuſpected of being employed by our miniſtry, as a private obſerver on the actions of ſeveral princes; and his profeſſion gave him theſe opportunities, as he was perpetually fluctuating between one court and another, and admitted to their preſence.

The oculiſt being introduced to the king, his majeſty (with his uſual politeneſs) aſked him what favours he could confer on him, being ready to diſtinguiſh all men of eminence like himſelf. The doctor only deſired to have the honour of being oculiſt to his m——y; and which, to make ſhort of, the king readily granted; adding, "as I do not love to ſuſpend any one's happineſs long, be at court to-morrow early, and your patent ſhall be ready."

The chevalier (flushed with this unexpected promiſe,) now appeared at court as by royal command; but notwithſtanding a double parade of lacqueys and equipage, on his approach the king ſaid, "You deſire to be my oculiſt—there is your patent; you muſt take the uſual oaths on theſe occaſions: that done, come to me again."

On reporting to the king that all neceſſary forms were gone through, his majeſty ſaid: "You deſired to be my oculiſt—you are ſo; my eyes want no aſſiſtance;—yet are you my oculiſt;—but, if you touch the eyes of one of my ſubjects, I will hang you up. I love my ſubjects equally as myſelf."

The chevalier departed (or was rather ordered to depart) in ſix hours: he pleaded more time to pack up his eyes and implements, but was refuſed; and a guard being ſet over him, he was eſcorted like any delinquent to the borders of Saxony, that being the country moſt contiguous. The reſpect his majeſty ſeemed at firſt to pay him in preference to all the Engliſh, (of which number the ſmalleſt was his ſuperior) now appeared a ſtill ſtronger ſatire againſt England, and proved that he ſuſpected the chevalier's other profeſſion, in conjunction with thoſe of oculiſt, orator, and profeſſor of every ſcience.

To bring this home to Voltaire, which was my intention, an epigram appeared from his pen, no doubt——the ſting of which was, "that the king had driven out of his dominions the only man who could have opened his eyes."

And now, to return to Fernex once more, where we ſhall take leave of our hero, and leave him to the opinion of others, no leſs than his own opinion of himſelf; his great favourite is doctor Tronchin, whom he calls his Æſculapius. The wife of his bookſeller ſeems very much to rule him, and alternately, one madame Relier, whoſe huſband is a leading man in the preſent affairs of Geneva: a place which Voltaire has ſuch an averſion to enter the walls of, that he has been known to ſit in his coach at the very gates, and ſend for thoſe perſons he has any buſineſs

or

or connection with to the window-ſide, and give them an audience with all the ſelf-ſufficiency of an eaſtern prince.

He is fond of driving a ſingle-horſe chaiſe, and has a roan-horſe, which the elector-palatine gave him at Manheim, becauſe it happened to be foaled juſt under eye from an Arabian mare.

He will ſometimes drive more madly than Phaeton, and then at once falls into a ſolemnity of pace, as if compoſing ſome great work.

An Engliſh gentleman who ſlept one night at his houſe, begged a book of him to amuſe him when he roſe in the morning: on which Voltaire gave him his *Pucelle d'Orleans*; adding, "A virgin in my houſe is no ſmall rarity."

Methinks, I ſee him now with his whip in his hand, calling the whole houſe to go a hunting *(à la chaſſe, à la chaſſe)* and when he had aſſembled every body, it was only to walk round his houſe, and bruſh down the ſpiders and their webs, which the ſervants had neglected among the pillars of each portico of his building.

He will talk much of what the writers will ſay after his death; and often hints, that the converſation of Monſieur de Voltaire on his death-bed, cooked up by ſome Jeſuit, will be a moſt delicious morſel for the Paris bookſellers: "and the raſcals will pick up many a good meal off my bones," ſays he, "bare as I am."

His kitchen-garden at Fernex is very large and convenient, but divided and ſubdivided ſo often by walls, looks rather unſightly: an open plat of ground would be too much expoſed to heat, perhaps, to forward culinary productions; the frequent walls may rather create a neceſſary ſhade.

His love of dates, ſweet oranges, and pomegranates, is very particular. Obſerve, in the ſouth of France, that the orange being grafted on the pomegranate, gives it a fine colour; and he will often hold it up, and ſay, "This muſt have been the forbidden fruit."

His favourite productions in our language are, Garth's Diſpenſatory; Prior's Henry and Emma: Pope's Prologue to Cato; and the ſmalleſt works of Pope: but as to Shakeſpeare and Milton, he can hardly ſpeak of them with any degree of patience.

As he writes much from hear-ſay, no wonder he is ſo ſubject to errors in chronology, and even facts. In a late production of his, which he calls *Contes*, or Tales, he declares, when writing a critique on the play of the Orphan, that Chamont, as a proof of the barbarity of the Engliſh ſtage, aſks his ſiſter, the fair and virtuous Monimia, if ſhe has not loſt her maiden-head; and affirms, that Polydore twice pulls his beloved and lovely orphan by the hair of her head acroſs the ſtage.

Whether any young Engliſh gentlemen, from deſign or ignorance, drew him into the ſcrape of committing this to the preſs I cannot ſay; but ſo it is—and I wiſh ſome comic genius of our iſland did not do it purpoſely to expoſe him, as, having endeavoured, or rather dared, as they would call it, to draw a picture of the Engliſh ſtage, without ever knowing its mere out-lines.

In his obſervations on the tragedy of Hamlet, (a play he utterly deſpiſes) he has hit on a blunder of

our great Engliſh dramatic writer, which I could wiſh had not been ſo viſible: viz.

"And now," ſays he, "the firſt act ends with the king giving his royal orders (and which muſt never be diſobeyed) to fire all the cannon round the ramparts, two hundred years before gunpowder was invented."

The famous ſoliloquy of, "To be, or not to be," he has variouſly burleſqued; as thus;

"To dance, or not to dance,
"To drink, or not to drink,
"To dreſs, or not to dreſs,
"To ride, or not to ride,
"To pay, or not to pay,
"To ſing, or not to ſing; that is the queſtion."

On an Engliſh gentleman's taking leave of him, to go to London, he ſaid: "Well, Sir! I will come and ſee you when you are got home—but that is after I am dead: there are above twenty ghoſts in the tragedy of Macbeth, why ſhould I not be one among them."

On addreſſing a lady, who had juſt lain in, he ſaid, "And who was your midwife?" On her telling him D. B.———r, a man, he ſmiled; and ſaid, "Well! give my reſpects to your huſband, and tell him he is half a cuckold."

He gives no regular livery; ſo that his ſervants often wearing that of the laſt place they lived at, have the appearance of ſeveral gentlemens ſervants attending as on a viſit to him.

He is fond of hawks; and as the adjacent Alps, and the vaſt chain of mountains, known by the name of *Mont Jura*, afford various ſpecies of theſe birds, his houſe is a menagerie of that kind; and he will ſometimes amuſe himſelf, with letting them fly at a pigeon or a tame fowl, about his houſe, calling them kings who tear the innocent ſubjects to pieces.

His houſe was built by an architect of Geneva, called Billion; but in this, he was only the bricklayer or ſtone-maſon, for the model is very common all over France.

Though he is of a noble family, yet is he ever ſhy of mentioning it; nor can any one learn what part of France he was born and bred in: perhaps, he thinks, if too many particulars were known, that it would be publiſhed before his death, as dying ſpeeches often are, and he would not wiſh to hear he was ſo near dying.

His love of Engliſh humour is ſo ſtrong, that he will invite the moſt common and blackguard ſtories; and by taking proper memorandums of them, one would think he meaned to new dreſs them, and thereby make them his own, in ſome future book of tales.

A certain Engliſh general officer led ſo diſſipated a life, that he often drank tokay of a guinea a quart, even when alone. Upon which his lady would often ſay, "My dear general, whatever you do for the honour of the crown, and in compliment to ſtate days, do not drink ſuch expenſive wine when by yourſelf; for what muſt your poor children do?" "Oh!" ſays the general, "I am eaſy as to that, let them ſmell at the corks."

It being neceſſary to tap him ſome time after for the dropſy, he went through the operation like a ſoldier; but aſking what the ſurgeons had found, and they replying water, he ſaid, "How can that be? I never drank a drop of water in all my life. But how long

long will it be before I muſt be tapped again?" On being anſwered ſix months, he replied, "It is impoſſible! no veſſel in my houſe ever held above ſix weeks."

In ſhort, his life was ſo profligate, that his lady at laſt ſaying "Why! general, you will not leave a ſhilling to bury you; he anſwered, "Oh! I'll ſtink them into good manners."

Voltaire rubbed his hands for joy, immediately ſet pen to paper, and an elegant tale on that ſubject, with all the Engliſh *bon mots*, is now to be ſeen at Fernex.

But again I repeat, and ever ſhall, that with all theſe littleneſſes, he is at intervals the very greateſt genius of this century. When he does compoſe, which is rare, he is ſo amazingly attentive, that he has been known to write a five act tragedy in as many days; and I have heard him ſay of comedy, that he could write it faſter than any actors could repreſent it, if he had good and quick ſecretaries.

With reſpect to the building at Fernex, (was it not for having committed the folly of preſerving the gateways, and ſome towers capped with pinnacles, according to the French manner of building) it would be a very magnificent fabric; but an error of the ſame nature is in point, as the lawyers ſay, near Bridgewater, in Somerſetſhire; where, to keep up a gateway of Lord Rocheſter's, the building of a very great and ingenious architect and nobleman is entirely ſpoilt, I mean Earl E——t.

I have no other anecdotes of Monſ. de Voltaire, but what would offend the one or other part of human nature, if related; I therefore beg to be excuſed any farther obſervations on ſo great, or ſo little a man.

NATURAL

NATURAL HISTORY.

Observations upon animals, commonly called amphibious by authors. Presented by Dr. Parsons, F. R. S.

THE following remarks, which I have the honour to lay before this learned society, were occasioned by a conversation that passed between me and a gentleman well acquainted with natural history, however mistaken in the subject before us. His opinion was, that amphibious animals lived more in the water than on the land: but I believe the contrary will appear by the sequel of this treatise.

If we consider the words αμφι and βιος, from which the term amphibious is derived; we should understand that animals, having this title, should be capable of living as well by land or in the air, as by water, or of dwelling in either constantly at will; but it will be difficult to find any animal that can fulfil this definition, as being equally qualified for either; and in classing creatures of this kind, authors are much divided, and sometimes mistaken.

Now if any natural historian should deduce his distinction of this class from the structure or characteristic of any part of the animal, I think he would be a little out of the way; because the term comprehends nothing but what regards its living in both air and water at discretion; however, since the word amphibious is adopted by the writers of the history of animals, let us retain it still, and examine some of this class, and by considering their natural œconomy respectively, endeavour to range them, according to that standard, in the following manner. They are such as,

1. Enjoy their chief functions by land, but occasionally go into the water.

2. Such as chiefly inhabit the water, but occasionally go ashore. Of the latter there are but very few species. And although none of the winged tribe are to be ranged under this class, yet as many of them remain long upon the water in search of their proper food, we shall enumerate some peculiar advantages, which have been allowed to several of them by the bountiful wisdom of the creator, in order to render them the more able to obtain it; and this will make one curious part of my present purpose, not generally known.

The dispute mentioned between my friend and me, turned upon the class of the phocæ, which consists of a very numerous tribe of different species: I shall therefore endeavour to shew that none of them

them can live chiefly in the waters, but that their chief enjoyment of the functions of life is on ſhore.

Theſe animals are really quadrupeds; but, as their chief food is fiſh, they are under a neceſſity of going out to ſea to hunt their prey, and to great diſtances from ſhore; taking care that, however great the diſtances, rocks or ſmall iſlands are at hand, as reſting places when they are tired, or their bodies become too much macerated in the water; and they return to the places of their uſual reſort to ſleep, copulate, and bring forth their young, for the following reaſons; viz. It is well known that the only eſſential difference (as to the general ſtructure of the heart) between amphibious and mere land animals, or ſuch as never go into the water, is, that in the former the oval hole remains always open. Now, in ſuch as are without this hole, if they were to be immerſed in water for but a little time, reſpiration would ceaſe, and the animal muſt die; becauſe a great part of the maſs of blood paſſes from the heart, by the pulmonary artery, through the lungs, and by the pulmonary veins returns to the heart; while the aorta is carrying the greater part of the maſs to the head and extremities, &c.

Now the blood paſſes through the lungs in a continual uninterrupted ſtream, while reſpiration is gentle and moderate; but when it is violent, then the circulation is interrupted, for inſpiration and expiration are now carried to their extent; and in this ſtate the blood cannot paſs through the lungs either during the total inſpiration or total expiration of the air in breathing; for in the former caſe the inflation compreſſes the returning veins, and in the latter, by the collapſion of the lungs, theſe veins are interrupted alſo, ſo that it is only between theſe two violent actions that the blood can paſs: and hence it is that the lives of animals are ſhortened, and their health impaired, when they are ſubjected to frequent violent reſpiration; and thus it is that in animals who have once breathed, they muſt continue to reſpire ever after; for life is at an end when that ceaſes.

There are three neceſſary and principal uſes of reſpiration in all land animals, and in theſe kinds that are counted amphibious; the firſt is that of promoting the circulation of the blood through the whole body and extremities: in real fiſhes, the force of the heart is alone capable of ſending the blood to every part, as they are not furniſhed with limbs or extremities; but in the others mentioned, being all furniſhed with extremities, reſpiration is an aſſiſtant force to the arteries in ſending blood to the extremities, which, being ſo remote from the heart, have need of ſuch aſſiſtance; otherwiſe the circulation would be very languid in theſe parts; thus we ſee, that in perſons ſubject to aſthmatic complaints, the circulation grows languid, the legs grow cold and oedematous, and other parts ſuffer by the defect in reſpiration.

A ſecond uſe of breathing is, that, in inſpiration, the variety of particles, of different qualities, which float always in the air, might be drawn into the lungs,

to

to be insinuated into the mass of blood, being highly necessary to contemperate and cool the agitated mass, and to contribute refined pabulum to the finer parts of it, which, meeting with the daily supply of chyle, serves to assimilate and more intimately mix the mass, and render its constitution the fitter for supporting the life of the animal. Therefore it is, that valetudinarians, by changing foul or unwholesome air for a free, good, open air, often recover from lingering diseases.

And a third principal use of respiring is, to promote the exhibition of a voice in animals; which all those that live on the land do according to their specific natures.

From these considerations it appears, beyond contradiction, that the phocæ of every kind are under an absolute necessity of making the land their principal residence; but there is another very convincing argument why they reside on shore the greatest part of their time, and that is, that the flesh of these creatures is analogous to that of other land animals; and therefore, by overlong maceration, added to the fatigue of their chacing their prey, they would suffer such a relaxation as would destroy them. It is well known that animals, which have lain long under water, are reduced to a very lax and even putrid state; and the phoca must bask in the air on shore; for while the solids are at rest, they acquire their former degree of tension, and the vigour of the animal is restored; and while he has an uninterrupted placid respiration, his blood is refreshed by the new supply of air, as I have explained it above, and he is rendered fit for his next cruise: for action wastes the most exalted fluids of the body, more or less, according to its duration and violence: and the restorative rest must continue a longer or shorter time, according to the quantity of the previous fatigue.

Let us now examine by what power these animals are capable of remaining longer under water than land animals.

All these have the oval hole open between the right and left auricles of the heart, and in many the canalis arteriosus also: and while the phoca remains under water, which he may continue an hour or two, more or less, his respiration is stopped, and the blood, not finding the passage through the pulmonary artery free, rushes through the hole from the right to the left auricle, and partly through the arterial canal, being a short passage to the aorta, and thence to every part of the body, maintaining the circulation: but, upon rising to come ashore, the blood finds its passage again through the lungs the moment he respires.

Thus the fœtus in utero, during his confinement, having the lungs compressed, and consequently the pulmonary arteries and veins impervious, has the circulation of the blood carried on through the oval hole and the arterial canal; now so far the phoca in the water and the fœtus in utero are analogous; but they differ in other material circumstances; one is, that the fœtus, having never respired, remains sufficiently nourished by the maternal blood circulating through him, and continues

nues to grow till the time of his birth, without any want of reſpiration during nine months confinement; the phoca, having reſpired the moment of his birth, cannot live very long without it, for the reaſons given before; and this hole and canal would be cloſed in them, as it is in land animals, if the dam did not, very ſoon after the birth of the cub, carry him into the water to teach him, ſo very frequently; by which practice theſe paſſages are kept open during life; otherwiſe they would not be capable of attaining the food deſigned for them by providence.

Another difference is, that the phoca, as I ſaid before, would be relaxed by maceration in remaining too long in the water; whereas the fœtus in utero ſuffers no injury from continuing its full number of months in the fluid he ſwims in: the reaſon is; that water is a powerful ſolvent, and penetrates the pores of the ſkins of land animals, and in time can diſſolve them; whereas the liquor amnii is an inſipid ſoft fluid, impregnated with particles more or leſs mucilaginous, and utterly incapable of making the leaſt alteration in the cutis of the fœtus.

Otters, beavers, and ſome kinds of rats, go occaſionally into the water for their prey, but cannot remain very long under water; I have often gone to ſhoot otters, and watched all their motions; I have ſeen one of them go ſoftly from a bank into the river, and dive down, and in about two minutes riſe, at ten or fifteen yards from the place he went in, with a middling ſalmon in his mouth, which he brought on ſhore; I ſhot him, and ſaved the fiſh whole. Now as all fœtuſes have theſe paſſages open, if a whelp of a true water-ſpaniel, was, immediately after its birth, ſerved as the phoca does her cubs, immerſed in water, to ſtop reſpiration for a little time every day, I make no doubt but the hole and canal would be kept open, and the dog be made capable of remaining as long under water as the phoca.

Frogs, how capable ſoever of remaining in the water, yet cannot avoid living on land, for they reſpire; and if, as I have often done, a frog be thrown into a river, he makes to the ſhore as faſt as he can.

The lizard kind, ſuch as may be called water lizards, or lacertæ aquaticæ, all are obliged to come to land and depoſit their eggs, reſt, and ſleep; even the crocodiles, who dwell much in rivers, ſleep and lay their eggs on ſhore; and, while in the water, are compelled to riſe to the ſurface to breathe; yet, from the texture of his ſcaly covering, he is capable of remaining in the water longer by far than any ſpecies of the phocæ, whoſe ſkin is analogous to that of a horſe or cow.

The hippopotamus, who wades into the lakes or rivers, is a quadruped, and remains under the water a conſiderable time; yet his chief reſidence is upon land, and he muſt come on ſhore for reſpiration.

The teſtudo, or ſea tortoiſe, tho' he goes out to ſea, and is often found far from land; yet, being a reſpiring animal, cannot remain long under water. He has indeed a power of rendering himſelf ſpecifically heavier or lighter than

than the water, and therefore can let himſelf down to avoid an enemy or a ſtorm; yet he is under a neceſſity of riſing frequently to breathe, for reaſons given before; and his moſt uſual ſituation, while at ſea, is upon the ſurface of the water, feeding upon the various ſubſtances that float in great abundance every where about him; theſe animals ſleep ſecurely upon the ſurface, but not under water, and can remain longer at ſea than any others of this claſs, except the crocodile, becauſe, as it is with the latter, his covering is not in danger of being too much macerated; yet they muſt go on ſhore to copulate, and lay their eggs.

The conſideration of theſe is ſufficient to inform us of the nature of the firſt order of the claſs of amphibious animals; let us now ſee what is to be ſaid of the ſecond in our diviſion of them, which are ſuch as chiefly inhabit the waters, but occaſionally go on ſhore.

Theſe are but of two kinds: the eel, and water-ſerpents or ſnakes of every kind. It is their form that qualifies them for locomotion on land, and they know their way back to the water at will; for by their ſtructure they have a ſtrong periſtaltic motion, by which they can go forward at a pretty good rate, whereas all other kinds of fiſh, whether vertical or horizontal, are incapable of a voluntary loco-motion on ſhore: and therefore, as ſoon as ſuch fiſh are brought out of the water, after having flounced a while, they lie motionleſs, and ſoon die.

Let us now examine into the reaſon why theſe vermicular fiſh, the eel and ſerpent kinds, can live a conſiderable time on land, and the vertical and horizontal kinds die almoſt immediately when taken out of the water: and in this reſearch, we ſhall come to know what analogy there is between land animals and thoſe of the waters. All land animals have lungs, and can live no longer than while theſe are inflated by the ambient air, and alternately compreſſed for its expulſion; that is, while reſpiration is duly carried on, by a regular inſpiration and expiration of air.

In like manner, the fiſh in general have, inſtead of lungs, gills, or branchiæ: and, as in land animals, the lungs have a large portion of the maſs of blood circulating through them, which muſt be ſtopped if the air has not a free ingreſs and egreſs into and from them; ſo, in fiſh, there is a great ſhare of blood veſſels that paſs through the branchiæ, and a great portion of their blood circulates through them, which muſt in like manner be totally ſtopped, if the branchiæ are not kept perpetually wet with water; ſo that, as the air is to the lungs, in land animals, a conſtant aſſiſtant to the circulation, ſo is the water to the branchiæ of thoſe of the rivers and ſeas; for when theſe are out of the water the branchiæ very ſoon grow criſp and dry, the blood veſſels are ſhrunk, and the blood is obſtructed in its paſſage; ſo when the former are immerſed in water, or otherwiſe prevented having reſpiration, the circulation ceaſes, and the animal dies.

Again, as land animals would be deſtroyed by too much maceration in water, ſo fiſhes would, on the other hand, be ruined by too

too much exſiccation; the latter being, from their general ſtructure and conſtitution, made fit to bear, and live in, the water; the former, by their conſtitution and forms, to breathe, and dwell, in the air.

But it may be aſked, why eels and water ſnakes are capable of living longer in the air than the other kinds of fiſh? this is anſwered, by conſidering the providential care of the great creator for theſe and every one of his creatures: for, ſince they were capable of loco-motion by their form, which they need not be if they were never to go on ſhore, it ſeemed neceſſary that they ſhould be rendered capable of living a conſiderable time on ſhore, otherwiſe their loco-motion would be in vain. How is this provided for? why in a moſt convenient manner; for this order of fiſhes have their branchiæ well covered from the external drying air, and are alſo furniſhed with a ſlimy mucus, which hinders their becoming criſp and dry for many hours, and their very ſkins always emit a mucus liquor, which keeps them ſupple and moiſt for a long time; whereas the branchiæ of other kinds of fiſh are much expoſed to the air, and want the ſlimy matter to keep them moiſt. Now, if, when any of theſe is brought out of the water, it was laid in a veſſel without water, he might be kept alive a conſiderable time, by only keeping the gills and ſurface of the ſkin conſtantly wet, even without any water to ſwim in.

Before I diſmiſs the firſt part of my diſcourſe, I muſt beg your patience, while I mention ſomething that relates to a family among the fiſh kinds, which is of a middle nature between the phocæ, and the real fiſhes of the ſea, in one peculiar reſpect. This is the claſs of the phœcenæ, or porpuſſes, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies; and theſe have lungs, and therefore are forced to come up to the ſurface to breathe at very ſhort intervals; but, when brought on ſhore, have no progreſſive loco-motion. So that having lungs, they reſemble the phocæ, and, in every other reſpect, the real fiſhes of the ſea.

Blaſius, in his Anatome Animalium, page 228, gives an account of one of theſe taken and brought on ſhore alive; the people let him lie, to ſee how long he could live out of the water; and he continued alive only about ſeven or eight hours, and exhibited a kind of hiſſing voice.

From what has been ſaid, it will, I hope, appear rational, that theſe are the only two orders that can properly be deduced from the claſs of amphibious animals; and that the genus's of either order are very few in the animal world.

A letter from James Parſons, M. D. F. R. S. to the right honourable the Earl of Morton, preſident of the Royal Society; on the double horns of the Rhinoceros.

My Lord,

WHEN I had the honour of laying my natural hiſtory of the rhinoceros before this learned ſociety in 1745, which is printed in number 470, page 523, of the Tranſactions, I had not an opportunity of ſhewing a double horn

horn to the members; I have therefore taken this firſt occaſion to entertain the preſent members with a ſight of a noble ſpecimen of the horns of an African rhinoceros, brought from the Cape of Good Hope, by my curious and worthy friend William Maguire, eſquire, among many other curioſities; preſuming that few of the ſociety have ever ſeen a pair of the like kind. But what renders this ſubject the more particular, and worthy of obſervation, is, that by means of knowing there is a ſpecies of this animal, having always a double horn upon the noſe, in Africa, Martial's reading is ſupported againſt the criticiſm of Bochart, who changed the true text of that poet, in an epigram upon the ſtrength of this animal; for when Domitian ordered an exhibition of wild beaſts, as it was the cuſtom of ſeveral emperors, the poet ſays: The rhinoceros toſs'd up a heavy bear with his double horn:

Namque gravem gemino cornu ſic extulit urſum.

and as Bochart knew nothing of a double horn, he changed this line both in reading and ſenſe thus:

Namque gravi geminum cornu ſic extulit eurum.

as if two wild bulls were toſſed up into the air, by the ſtrong horn of the rhinoceros.

Mr. Maittaire adopted the notion of a ſingle horn, but was of opinion that the *geminum eurum* of Bochart ought to have been plural, *geminos euros*, as being more elegant; and he was followed by Doctors Mead and Douglas, with the difference, that theſe changed the *euros* for *urſos*, as imagining they were rather bears than bulls that were thrown up by this noble animal.

Our then worthy preſident Martin Folkes, eſquire, had ſeen my account of this ſubject, at the end of which, I endeavoured, however preſumptuouſly, to defend Martial's reading againſt Bochart and the other eminent perſons mentioned; and deſired I would let it be read and printed, which I very readily agreed to, as his requeſt did me much honour.

Before my paper was printed, Mr. Maittaire and Doctor Douglas died; and the learned Doctor Mead was the ſurviving critic, upon this line, of the three. Upon this occaſion, therefore, I have a double pleaſure; firſt, in amuſing the preſent gentlemen with a moſt curious ſpecimen in natural hiſtory; and, ſecondly, in remembering in this place, the nice candor and generoſity of Dr. Mead upon that ſubject. For, about four months after the paper was printed, he received a preſent of ſeveral curious ſhells, ſeeds, &c. and with them the bones of the face of a young rhinoceros, with two horns *in ſitu*, all intire, by a captain of an African trader, who brought them from Angola.

As ſoon as he ſaw the horns, he ſent to invite me to breakfaſt, and there, in company, ingenuouſly gave up his paſt opinion, and declared for Martial; and, indeed, I muſt add to the praiſe of that great man, that, as I was happy in being frequently at his houſe, I was witneſs to many ſuch inſtances of the moſt diſintereſted

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candour and generosity, where any part of science was the topic, among his select friends.

This anecdote I thought proper to mention upon the present occasion; nor can too much be said to his honour, among all lovers of philosophical learning. I am

Your lordship's
most obedient servant,
James Parsons.

P. S. The dimensions are as follows; viz. The length of the anterior horn, measuring with a string along the convex fore part, is 20 inches; perpendicular height 18; circumference 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ at the base; the posterior horn is in perpendicular height 19 $\frac{1}{4}$, circumference round the base 18; length of both bases together upon the nasal bones 14; and the weight of both together is 14 pounds 10 ounces.

The rhinoceros of the year 1739, described in the transactions, was three years old; and the horn not three inches high; and hence by comparing that with this, one may imagine this to be many years old, perhaps above twenty; and that this animal lives to a great age.

It is also plain that the horns are perpetual, as are those of oxen.

A letter to the president of the royal society, containing a new manner of measuring the velocity of wind, and an experiment to ascertain to what quantity of water a fall of snow is equal.

Kirknewton, May 13, 1766.

My Lord,

I SHOULD think myself most unworthy of the honour which your lordship and the royal society have done me, if the notice which you was pleased to take of my letter upon the late comet, did not make me more careful to observe whatever I thought might tend to improve the knowledge of nature, which is a capital part of the laudable design of the society.

Your lordship knows, that my situation exposes me to every blast that blows, and affords a fair opportunity for measuring the velocity of the wind (the force of which I am, so often, obliged to feel). I have attempted to determine this by letting light downy feathers fly in the wind (the method, I understand, used by the ingenious Dr. Derham); but cannot say, in all the trials I have made (though I have let fifty of these feathers fly, one after the other, at a time), that I have ever seen above one, or two at most, upon which I could have founded a calculation. The velocity of the wind near the earth is very unequal, upon account of the frequent interruptions it meets with from hills, trees, and houses; and even in open plains; the surface of the earth, though much smoother than it commonly is, must reflect and interrupt such a fluid as the air, and occasion great irregularity in the velocity of its current: this is the reason, when a feather is let fly with the wind, why it seldom, if ever, describes a strait line, but moves sometimes in a kind of spiral, now high, and then low, sometimes to the right, and then again to the left; and why two feathers let fly at once, seldom, if ever, keep together, or describe similar lines.

But, at some considerable distance from the earth, the velocity of the wind seems to be regular and steady: nothing can be more

uniform, than the velocity of a cloud in the ſky appears to be, even in the greateſt ſtorm: it is like a ſhip carried away inſenſibly by a ſmooth and gentle current, paſſing over equal ſpaces in equal times. This ſuggeſted the thought, that the motion of a cloud, or its ſhadow over the ſurface of the earth, would be a much more proper meaſure of the velocity of the wind.

In the end of March 1763, I had as favourable an opportunity of putting this method into practice, as I could have wiſhed for: the ſtorm was exceeding high, and moved with vaſt velocity; the ſun was bright, the ſky clear, except where it was ſpotted with light floating clouds; I took my ſtation in the north window of my dining room, near the clock, from which I had a free proſpect of the fields; the ſun was in the meridian, the wind due weſt interſecting his rays at right angles; I waited until the fore-part of the ſhadow of a cloud, that was diſtinct, and well defined, juſt touched a ſouth and north line, which I had marked upon the ground; at that inſtant I began my reckoning, and followed the ſhadow with my eye in its progreſs, counting ſeconds all the while by the clock, until I had reckoned up 15 ſeconds; then I obſerved exactly where the foreſaid edge of the ſhadow was.

This experiment I repeated ten times in half an hour, and ſeldom found the difference of a ſecond, in the time which different clouds took to move over the ſame ſpace. On the 5th of May current, I repeated the trial four different times, the ſun being alſo near the meridian, the wind in the weſt, with light clouds floating in a clear ſky as formerly; and found that the ſhadows of different clouds took ſome of them 44, and others 45 ſeconds, to paſs over the ſame ſpace which they had moved over in 15 ſeconds, in the former trials.

Feet

This ſpace meaſures exactly 1384 = ſpace paſſed over in 15 ſeconds,
which multiplied by 4
gives 5536 = ſpace paſſed over in one minute,
which multiplied by 60
gives 332,160 = ſpace paſſed over in one hour.

Which ſpace is = 62.9 Engliſh miles per hour, the velocity of the wind in March 1763.

One third of this (or 21 miles nearly) ſhews the velocity of the wind on May the 6th, when it blew a freſh gale.

This day, May 12, there was a ſmall weſterly breeze, the velocity of which I meaſured upon the ſame line, the ſun being 10 minutes paſt the meridian, and found that the ſhadow took 95 ſeconds to paſs over the above ſpace, which gives the velocity of the wind at the rate of 9.9 Engliſh miles per hour.

Thus, by having ſeveral lines in different directions of a known length marked upon the ground, one may eaſily (and with great accuracy, I imagine) meaſure the velocity of the wind. If a perſon was provided with an inſtrument

for

for measuring the force of the wind, it would perhaps be worth while to observe, whether, when the velocities of different winds were the same, (or nearly so) the forces of these winds did not vary with the seasons of the year, the points of the compass from which the wind blows, and also with the different state of the barometer and thermometer, since the momentum of the wind depends not only upon its velocity, but also upon its density.

From the end of March 1765, to the end of March last, we, in this part of Scotland, had very little rain, and less snow in proportion; our rivers were as low, through the winter, as they used to be in the middle of summer; springs failed in most places, and brewers and maltsters were obliged, even in winter, to carry their water at a considerable distance; I was much afraid there would not be moisture enough in the earth for the purposes of vegetation, if this season should set in as dry as the former, before we got a new supply of rain. In the end of March last, we had a fall of snow; and, as I did not remember to have ever read an account of such an experiment, I wished to be able to determine, to what quantity of rain this fall of snow was equal.

The snow had been falling from five o'clock the former evening, till ten o'clock the next day; about eleven o'clock I measured the depth of the snow, and found it to be 6.2 inches; then I took a stone jug, holding about three English pints, and turned the mouth of it downwards upon the snow measured, and where the ground below was smooth and hard; and by this means I took up all the snow from top to bottom in the jug; this snow I melted by the side of a fire, and the 6.2 inches of snow yielded six tenths of an inch deep of water in the same jug. After emptying the jug, I dried, and weighed it in a ballance, and took up the same quantity of snow in it as before, weighed it again, and found the weight of the snow taken up, and from this weight computed what quantity of water it should have produced, and found that it ought to have produced six tenths of an inch and $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch more: then I dissolved the snow, and found that it yielded a quantity of water in the bottom of the jug, six tenths of an inch deep, as in the former experiment. The difference of $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch in the depth of the water, betwixt the weight and the melting of the snow, was probably owing to an exhalation from the jug, while the snow was melting by the fire, for I observed a steam sometimes rising from it. A greater or lesser degree of cold, or of wind, while the snow falls, and its lying a longer or shorter while upon the ground, will occasion a difference in the weight and in the quantity of water produced from a certain number of cubic feet, or inches of snow; but, if I may trust to the above trials, (which I endeavoured to perform with care) snow, newly fallen, with a moderate gale of wind, freezing cold, which was the case of the snow I made the trials upon, the 27th of March last, will produce a quantity of water equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ part of its bulk; or the earth, when covered with snow, ten inches deep, will

be moiſtened by it when melted, rivers and ſprings recruited, as much as if a quantity of rain had fallen that covered the ſurface of the earth to the depth of one inch.

I am, my lord, &c.

Alex. Brice.

Some curious particulars relative to the growth of rhubarb; how an animal called the marmot contributes to its propagation, and how the natives dry the root. Taken from Mr. Bell's travels.

THE beſt rhubarb grows in that part of the Eaſtern Tartary called Mongallia, a vaſt country inhabited by the Mongall Tartars, and which now ſerves as a boundary between the two mighty empires of Ruſſia and China. The Mongalls, though once a great and independent people, have, notwithſtanding by degrees, been induced to put themſelves under the protection of one or other of theſe their powerful neighbours. This meaſure ſeems rather to have proceeded from the love of eaſe, a deſire of ſecurity, and a want of unanimity; than to have been the effect of fear, or the conſequence of an abſolute conqueſt. The Mongallians ſtill retain their own laws, cuſtoms, and princes; and though they ſubmit to certain regulations, it does not appear that they pay any tribute. This ſubmiſſion has, however, divided their country and nation into what may be called Ruſſian and Chineſe; the two great, jealous neighbours, to prevent the continual diſputes which would have happened about limits, or the deſertion of their people, have left a vaſt chain of country, of about 300 miles in breadth, and of a prodigious length, waſte and uninhabited, as a common barrier between them. This country, which is one of the fineſt in Aſia, produces the beſt rhubarb in the world, and runs the whole length of Mongallia, dividing it into two parts. We ſhall now give our curious traveller's own words.

The country retained much the ſame appearance, and the weather was very fine: but not a ſingle inhabitant was yet to be ſeen. In the evening I walked from our tents, with ſome of our company, to the top of a neighbouring hill, where I found many plants of excellent rhubarb; and, by the help of a ſtick, dug up as much of it as I wanted.

On theſe hills are a great number of animals called marmots, of a browniſh colour, having feet like a badger, and nearly of the ſame ſize. They make deep burrows on the declivities of the hills; and, it is ſaid, that, in winter, they continue in theſe holes, for a certain time, even without food. At this ſeaſon, however, they ſit or lie near their burrows, keeping a ſtrict watch; and, at the approach of danger, rear themſelves upon their hind feet, giving a loud whiſtle, like a man, to call in the ſtragglers; and then drop into their holes in a moment.

I ſhould not have mentioned an animal ſo well known as the marmot, had it not been on account of the rhubarb. Whereever you ſee ten or twenty plants growing, you are ſure of finding ſeveral burrows under the ſhades of their broad ſpreading leaves.

Perhaps

Perhaps they may ſometimes eat the leaves and roots of this plant: however, it is probable, the manure they leave about the roots, contributes not a little to its increaſe; and their caſting up the earth makes it ſhoot out young buds, and multiply This plant does not run, and ſpread itſelf, like docks, and others of the ſame ſpecies; but grows in tufts at uncertain diſtances, as if the ſeeds had been dropped with deſign. It appears that the Mongalls never accounted it worth cultivating; but that the world is obliged to the marmots for the quantities ſcattered, at random, in many parts of this country: for whatever part of the ripe ſeed happens to be blown among the thick graſs, can very ſeldom reach the ground, but muſt there wither and die; whereas, ſhould it fall among the looſe earth, thrown up by the marmots, it immediately takes root, and produces a new plant.

After digging and gathering the rhubarb, the Mongalls cut the large roots into ſmall pieces, in order to make them dry more readily. In the middle of every piece they ſcoop a hole, through which a cord is drawn, in order to ſuſpend them in any convenient place. They hang them for the moſt part about their tents, and ſometimes on the horns of their ſheep. This is a moſt pernicious cuſtom, as it deſtroys ſome of the beſt part of the root; for all about the hole is rotten and uſeleſs; whereas, were people rightly informed how to dig and dry this plant, there would not be one pound of refuſe in an hundred; which would ſave a great deal of trouble and expence, that much diminiſh the profits on this commodity. At preſent, the dealers in this article think theſe improvements not worthy of their attention, as their gains are more conſiderable on this than on any other branch of trade. Perhaps the government may hereafter think it proper to make ſome regulations with regard to this matter.

I have been more particular in deſcribing the growth and management of the rhubarb; becauſe I never met with an author, or perſon, who could give a ſatisfactory account where, or how, it grows. I am perſuaded, that in ſuch a dry climate as this, it might eaſily be ſo cultivated as to produce any quantity that could be wanted.

Some account of the horns, called mammon's horns; and the ſtrange opinions the Tartars hold of the kind of animal to which they imagined they belonged. From the ſame.

IN the banks of the Oby, about this place, are found great quantities of that kind of ivory called, in this country, mammon's horn. Some of it alſo is found on the banks of the Volga. Mammon's horn, reſembles, in ſhape and ſize, the teeth of a large elephant. The vulgar really imagine mammon to be a creature living in marſhes and under ground; and entertain many ſtrange notions concerning it. The Tartars tell many fables of its having been ſeen alive. But to me it appears that this horn is the tooth of a large elephant.

When, indeed, or how, theſe teeth came ſo far to the northward, where no elephants can, at preſent ſubſiſt during the winter-ſeaſon, is what I am unable to determine. They are commonly found in the banks of rivers which have been waſhed by floods. The commandant of this place had his entry ornamented with ſeveral very large ones, and made me a preſent of one of them.

I have been told by Tartars in the Baraba, that they have ſeen this creature called mammon, at the dawn of day, near lakes and rivers; but, that on diſcovering them, the mammon immediately tumbles into the water, and never appears in the day-time; they ſay it is about the ſize of a large elephant, with a monſtrous large head and horns, with which he makes his way in marſhy places, and under ground, where he conceals himſelf till night. I only mention theſe things as the reports of a ſuperſtitious and ignorant people.

I have obſerved, in moſt of the towns we paſſed, between Tobolſky and Yeneſieſky, many of theſe mammons' horns, ſo called by the natives; ſome of them very entire and freſh, like the beſt ivory, in every circumſtance, excepting only the colour, which was of a yellowiſh hue; others of them mouldered away at the ends, and, when ſawn aſunder, prettily clouded. The people make ſnuff-boxes, combs, and divers ſorts of turnery ware of them.

They are found in the banks of all the great rivers in Siberia, weſtward of Iencouſky, when the floods have waſhed down the banks, by the melting of the ſnow, in the ſpring. I have ſeen of them weighing above one hundred pounds Engliſh. (I brought a large tooth, or mammon's horn, with me to England, and preſented it to my worthy friend Sir Hans Sloane, who gave it a place in his celebrated Muſeum; and was of opinion, alſo, that it was the tooth of an elephant. This tooth was found in the river Oby, at a place called Surgute.)

Extract from the Theatro Critico Univerſal. Para Deſenganno De Errores Communes, *the voluminous work of the famous Spaniſh Benedictine Monk, Father* Feyjoo.

FATHER Feyjoo begins with ſaying, that the fact treated of in this chapter is ſo extraordinary, and ſo contrary to the regular courſe of things, that he would not have given it a place in this work, if he had not found that the truth of it was atteſted by almoſt all the inhabitants of a whole province, many of whom who were eye-witneſſes, and perſons of great credit, are ſtill living.

The following are the principal circumſtances of the fact. Franciſco, the ſon of Franciſco de la Vega, and of Maria del Caſar, his wife, was born at a village called Lierganes, two leagues to the ſouth weſt of the city of Santandergin, in the archbiſhopric of Burgos. At the age of fifteen he was ſent to learn the trade of a carpenter at Bilboa, in which ſtation he remained two years, till on the eve of St. John's day, in 1674, having, in company with others, gone to bathe himſelf in the river, his

his companions loſt ſight of him, and, after waiting for him a long while, they ſuppoſed him to be drowned, and informed his maſter of it, who acquainted the young man's mother, who mourned for him as dead. In the year 1679, ſome fiſhermen in the bay of Cadiz ſaw ſomething ſwimming on the water, and diving at pleaſure, that reſembled a man. They endeavoured to catch it, but could not the firſt day. The next day they ſaw it again, and, by means of ſome pieces of bread which they threw into the ſea, and which it laid hold of and eat, they encloſed it in their nets, and drew it to the ſhore. Upon examination, the fiſherman found their prize was a perfect man, as to appearance, and they carried him to the convent of Franciſcans in Cadiz, where the good fathers, ſuppoſed him to be poſſeſſed by ſome evil ſpirit, as he would return no anſwer to any of their queſtions, exorciſed him, but they could not get him to pronounce any one word, except Lierganes, the meaning of which word they could not gueſs, till hearing from a native of Aſturia that in his country there was a village of that name, and that Don Domingo de la Cantolla, ſecretary of the inquiſition at Madrid, was born there, Don Domingo was writ to, informing him of this affair, and deſiring him to write to Lierganes, to know whether a young man, whom they deſcribed as to his age and marks, had been miſſing from that place; and he had an anſwer, that a ſon of Franciſco de la Vega had diſappeared in the river of Bilboa five years before, but that his mother looked upon him as drowned. Don Domingo gave this information to the convent of Cadiz, and one of the fathers, whoſe name was John Roſcende, and who a little before came from Jeruſalem, had a great deſire to enquire into this extraordinary affair. Accordingly he ſet out from Cadiz in the ſame year 1679, with the man who had been caught in the net, with intention of going to Lierganes. When the father got within a quarter of a league of the village, he deſired his companion to go before to ſhew him the way; which he did very exactly, going directly to his mother's houſe. The moment ſhe ſaw him ſhe knew him, and embraced him—crying out, This is my ſon Franciſco whom I loſt at Bilboa! Two of his brothers alſo (Thomas, a prieſt, and John, who ſtill was alive when Feyjoo wrote) embraced him; but he expreſſed no emotion, nor did he utter a word. Father Roſcende left him with his mother, and he remained with her nine years in this ſtate of idiotiſm, (having been rather remarkable for his capacity before he diſappeared at Bilboa) and the only words he ever ſpoke were, tabaco, pan, vino (tobacco, bread, wine). Sometimes he eat moſt voraciouſly, on other days he touched no food. He uſed frequently to be employed in carrying letters round the neighbourhood, which he did very punctually. Once it happened, that Don Pedro del Guero ſent him to Saint Andero with a letter for Don John de Olivarez; and becauſe the ferry-boat was not ready, he threw himſelf into the river, and ſwam croſs it about a league broad, many ſeeing him land at Saint Andero. He delivered his letter as directed;

but Don John, who asked him how the letter came to be wet, could get nothing from him. He carried the answer to Lierganes, with his usual punctuality.—He lived in this manner about nine years, and then disappeared, nobody having ever found out what became of him.

Father Feyjoo gives us two letters to the above effect; one from the marquis of Valbuina, of St. Andero, to Don Joseph de la Torre, minister of the royal council of Oviedo, and another from Don Gasper Melchor de la Riba Auguera, to Don Diego de la Gandara Valade. Don Gasper says, that he had seen Francisco de la Vega frequently. Feyjoo says, that he had a third account, agreeing with the other two, from Don Pedro Dionysio de Rubel Cava, a gentleman of consequence of Solares, a place close to Lierganes. And in the supplement to this discourse, which we find in his ninth volume, from p. 280 to p. 283, he inserts a letter which he had received (after he had published the above account) from the archbishop of Sarragossa, Don Thomas de Aguero, who assures him, that when he was a young man, he had frequently seen this man-fish (*hombre pez* is the archbishop's expression) at his uncle Don Garcia de Aguero's house near Lierganes. But besides this, Feyjoo also gives us, in the supplement, a letter from Don Joseph Dias Guitran, an inhabitant of Cadiz, dated Dec. 22, 1738, in which he says, that Don Eitavan Fanales, intendant of the marine, had told him, he had seen the man-fish frequently, and that a Franciscan friar was still alive, who assured him that he had been frequently in his cell.

Of spirits prepared by the force of fire, with some observations for guarding against and remedying the noxious vapours of charcoal, &c. From Boerhaave's academical lectures on the Diseases of the Nerves, lately published, in Latin, by his pupil Van Eems, physician of Leyden.

THE bodies, which in the open air are so agitated by fire, as to pass into crackling flames, smoke, soot, and ashes, emit corpuscles from the solid mass, which may properly be denominated spirits. Three things here occur; smoke, sometimes coloured in a wonderful manner, as may be seen in sulphureous bodies; soot, and the remaining flame. Hence arises a stench, separable from the smoke, consisting of the volatile salt of the plant wafted into the air, and spirits passing forth by the action of the fire; and the smoke is collected into a black and flocculent matter, which is called soot. Those fumes, whilst so agitated, produce wonderful effects in our bodies; for they cause erosions in the eyes, make the lungs hoarse, and the voice harsh; and hypochondriac and hysteric persons, or those labouring under convulsive asthmas, are almost strangled by the small quantity of smoke that may be in a room. The smell only of a vegetable thing excites convulsion in epileptic people; and abortions, palpitations of the heart, and almost all other affections have had their origin from the fumes of a candle or lamp extinguished in a close place. When certain bodies are thrown upon the fire that smoke may proceed

ceed from them it may then become poiſonous: this is evident from throwing ſome twigs or leaves of the toxicodendron on the burning fire; for all the perſons that may be about the fire at the ſame time, will grow pale as if they were dead, and if the place be cloſe, they may fall into almoſt all ſorts of diſeaſes; yet theſe leaves, while they remain on the tree, though expoſed to the ſun, are quite harmleſs. Mercurialis relates, that in his time a military officer had occaſioned the death of all preſent, by throwing a certain body on the fire, which body carried about one did no harm, but only became active by fire. Hence we learn, and this is ſufficient for us, that, by the ſtrong force of fire in the open air, particles may be extricated, which have a power ſo to affect the nerves, as to produce all kinds of diſeaſes, and death itſelf. In other reſpects we ſee that the moſt ſalubrious vapours proceed from other plants, as from guaiacum-wood, and that of the juniper-tree. The dough of bread yields no ſenſible ſmell, but, baked in an oven, if a quantity of it is cut freſh in a cloſe place, it may cauſe death. Coffee-berries, whilſt roaſting in a place not blown through by the air, brought upon a man, who had too greedily ſnuffed up their ſmell, a cardialgia and vomiting.

But there are likewiſe ſpirits from the ſuffocation of fire. A live flame, urging a vegetable with the greateſt force, and then ſuffocated and extinguiſhed, ſo changes this body as to acquire a quality which may bring our body to death itſelf. If a piece of any kind of wood, or of the common turf, called alſo peat, is put into a chemical veſſel, and the fire under it is gradually brought to its moſt intenſe degree, water, ſpirit, and oil, are ſucceſſively produced: if all theſe have paſſed out, and the reſiduum is ſtill urged by a vehement fire, it will eternally breathe forth ſomething, never ſhewing a deficiency. Hence it is called, by Van Helmont, the eternal coal, becauſe that ſimple oil, which adheres to the earth, is never ſeparated in a cloſe veſſel; if pounded fine, it is an inſipid inert duſt; if you expoſe this coal to the open air, it will light by the application of fire; the ſurface only, contiguous to the air, becomes white; if the coal is broken, it gliſtens every where within; if you go on burning it, it at length begins to be buried under aſhes. It is impoſſible to conſume this coal otherwiſe than in the external ſurface, contiguous to the air, which being conſumed, the ſubſequent ſurface is alſo conſumed, and, after ſuch a conſumption of ſurfaces from ſixty pounds of wood, one only of aſhes remains; nor can all thoſe pounds, that are conſumed, be gathered by any art; for the coal, in cloſe veſſels, cannot poſſibly be conſumed by any degree of fire.

If one ſhould write on paper, which is impregnated with a ſolution of orpiment, and dry this paper, no colour appears; but, if the paper is held over lighted coals, the letters will immediately become black, and hence that which flies up is thus manifeſted. If you place a burning coal between the ſun and your eye, corpuſcules will be ſeen carried upwards by a tremulous motion; but it is doubted whether theſe are produced from the coal or ſun. Van Helmont

called

called this way of changing this body a permutation into gas, and thinks that these corpuscles dwindle in this manner into the extremest tenuity, and are transformed into a kind of water, which can rise to the extremity of the atmosphere. If such a coal be taken, and fire applied to it in a spacious place that is shut up, all the animals in that place will die; not from heat, for the contrary is evinced by experience; and from the burning of wood in a chamber that is blown through by the wind, disease or death never happens. Who would believe it, that the mere force of fire can so change a very harmless body, if it act upon it in the open air, when the most intense degree of fire can separate nothing of the like, from the same body, in a close vessel? It is therefore very improper to deride Van Helmont upon account of the word gas, for he explains it sufficiently, and he thought a new and singular name should be given to this change, the like of which we have no knowledge of.

Whilst Van Helmont, then an old man, was writing in a cold winter's day, he saw his ink freeze, and he ordered a chafing dish to be brought him, with coals that did not smoke. He felt no harm from it; but, his daughter coming in shortly after, and saying that she perceived a strong stench from the coals, the father, making a motion for quitting the place, falls back, hurts the hinder part of his head, and is carried away for dead. It may appear from this singular example, that in a spacious place, the doors open, the weather cold, without the least observation of contracting any illness, all the actions of a man were in a moment abolished by nothing more than these fumes. Boerhaave relates of himself, that being in a parlour, drinking tea with some ladies, where there was a chafing-dish of kindled charcoal for keeping the kettle boiling, and no chimney in the place, he saw all the ladies grow pale, and was so affected himself by the fumes of the charcoal, that, had not the doors been open, he felt himself tottering, and ready to tumble down. He likewise relates the same effects on some young ladies who lived in Leyden, and were sitting in a parlour, the windows of which gave into the street: the aunt of the mistress of the house, looking in at the window, announced her coming by tapping on the glass with her fingers; she saw through the window all the ladies seated and looking at her, but not one of them making the least motion; she repeated her taps, and so as to be louder, but none of them made her an answer; thinking they were passing some joke on her, she knocks in a passion at the door, calling out, that the weather was too cold to be kept so long in the streets: entering the parlour, she perceived the fumes of charcoal, and saw all the ladies pale and senseless; immediately she ordered the windows to be opened, and all their faces to be sprinkled with water; by this means all of them soon recovered, but one of them vomited, another, had a head ach, yet none of them suffered any thing more.

An English nobleman, travelling by boat in the night from Utrecht to Leyden, took with him into his cabbin a stove, and ordered the door

door to be kept ſhut: when he came to his place of deſtination, the waterman, opening the door, found him dead, with no other apparent ſign than a little froth about his mouth. Four peaſants, having made a fire in the hold of a ſhip, were all found dead there. An entire family in the ſuburbs, called de Hooge Morſch, were found dead from this cauſe, by laying in the winter-time a pan of live coals in the midſt of a room where there was no chimney, and the doors ſhut.

Boerhaave ſays, that he experienced in himſelf, at the beginning of the ill effects from ſuch vapours an inclination to ſleep, a tenſive pain in the head, a nauſea, a vomiting of thick froth, and his head remaining as it were for many days full; but if the vapour be denſe, nothing of theſe particulars is perceptible, but the affected die ſenſeleſs. This vapour, however, is not attended with any inconveniency, if a quantity of ſea-ſalt is ſprinkled on the fire, or if gun-powder is ſet fire to in the cloſe room. But when the ill effects have taken place, the beſt remedy is to ſprinkle cold water on the bodies, and to throw it upon the face and bare boſom. If cold water be thrown upon animals that have died in poiſonous caverns, they are immediately brought to life; and hence, if men, who have died by the vapour of coals, were as ſoon as poſſible treated in the ſame manner, they might alſo perhaps be brought to life. In ſuch caſe, however, this remedy is never to be neglected; for here there is no corruption, but a mere reſt of all the moving parts, and in other reſpects nothing is changed; if therefore they are dipped into cold water, the elaſticity of the veſſels being increaſed by the cold, the blood moves towards the inner parts through the veins; and the motion of the blood through the veins reſuſcitates its action to the heart, that is, reſuſcitates life itſelf.

The effects are not leſs noxious that proceed from places newly white waſhed with lime, which diffuſes a ſubaſtringent and fetid vapour, eſpecially upon the introduction of fire. For this reaſon all newly built houſes, if too ſoon inhabited, may bring on fatal diſorders, or the worſt of palſies, which can neither be cured by fomentations nor baths. Theſe ailments might likewiſe be occaſioned by burning the parts of animals. If a place infected with the naſtieſt inſects, as bugs or fleas, is ſhut up cloſe in all parts, and the bones of animals, or hartſhorn, are laid on the open fire, and the ſmoke is hindered to paſs out, all theſe animals are killed; and greater animals may alſo be killed by the like ſmoke. The wings of partridges, which abound with a volatile ſalt, being burnt, have often excited hyſterical paſſions, and epileptic fits, where they were not, and diſſipated them when they were preſent. A dog, killed in a heat of 146 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, emitted ſuch a horrid and noiſome ſtench, that thoſe who came too near it in a moment ſwooned away. In like manner, by the force of fire, dreadful ſymptoms are excited from foſſils. Aretæus obſerves in his chapter on epilepſies, that the ſtrong ſmell of the gagates ſtone had immediately brought

brought on epileptic fits. Fire, acting on cobalt, which ſeems to be intirely inert, raiſes a thick white vapour that kills every animal, and this vapour fixing upon the ceiling of a room, concretes into a white flocculent matter, called arſenic, which is a moſt potent poiſon. If this cobalt, mixed with other foſſils, and wrapped up in a paper, be kept in a wooden box, it will eat through both the wood and the box; and if this happens in ſo ſmall a degree of heat, what muſt it be, when this body is agitated by fire? How fixed is nitre, whatever way tried! If it melts in the fire, it remains fixed and mild; if bolar or uncalcinable earths are mixed with it, and both expoſed to the fire, it will yield a ſpirit, volatile like alcohol, which corrodes and diſſolves all things, except gold and glaſs; and it is very hurtful to the lungs. The ſame way a ſpirit aſcends from ſea-ſalt, which corrodes all things. If ſulphur be ſublimed ten times, it remains mild, as before; but, if ſet on fire, it kills animals, and corrodes and conſtringes all things.

On the effect of the imagination on a different body. From the ſame.

WHAT muſt we think of that action excited in the common ſenſory by the help of that faculty we call the imagination, which ſo diſpoſes the common ſenſory from internal cauſes, as it was before diſpoſed from external? For my part, I ſay, that the force of the common ſenſory is exerted by a true corporeal effect out of the human body, as appears from women that give ſuck, or the pregnant, who, by this property of the common ſenſory, change the fœtus in their womb. I have ſeen myſelf an inſtance of a healthy woman ſuckling a very healthy child, who was ſo diſturbed by another woman ſcolding at her, and ſo irritated as to be all over in a tremor; yet, by ſuckling her child in this condition, it was immediately convulſed, and remained epileptic. Who now will ſay what could be in her milk, and how it could receive the power of producing thoſe corporeal changes? But it ſhould be a point of prudence with a nurſe never to ſuckle a child when ſhe is under any diſturbance of mind. We can in ſome meaſure account, why a drunken nurſe inebriates a child; but we cannot ſo eaſily underſtand, how milk can be ſo far changed merely by the paſſions of the mind.

The ſame may hold true in pregnant women. There perhaps ariſes in the pregnant mother a certain idea: if it be frequent and cuſtomary, it does not affect her; if unuſual, it ſometimes affects her, and ſometimes not. This idea proceeds ſometimes from ſeeing or hearing, or from the imagination alone, or the appetite alone. The ſudden ſight of a thing not ſeen before impreſſes on an infant the figure of that thing. From hearing the hiſtory of ſome dreadful misfortune or calamity, the frighted mother imbibes a ſimilar efficacious idea; and the ſame happens as often from the imagination, dreams, and that depraved ſtate of the appetite called longing.

A very handſome lady, yet one of

of ſtrict morals, and abſtaining from all manner of exceſs in the uſe of wine, being with child, conceived a longing for drinking Rheniſh wine. She long ſtruggles againſt this paſſion, her huſband examines her about it, and ſhe at laſt confeſſes what it is: he takes her to a wine cellar in Amſterdam, where ſhe drinks ſo great a quantity as would fuddle two ſtout men, yet no harm enſued to her from her copious draught; and, when ſhe had once ſatisfied her longing, ſhe remained afterwards free from it. Another woman had an exceſſive longing for eating a morſel out of a butcher's ſhoulder, and could enjoy no reſt, till ſhe had found means once to bite him.

A princeſs was delivered of a black daughter, by only ſeeing for the firſt time a blackmoor. As this woman had never been left alone, but was conſtantly attended with the greateſt care, all ſuſpicion was void of any commerce with a black. This idea, once given birth to, does not reſt; it occupies the whole ſenſory, and every moment quickens the woman's fancy.

But ſo unuſual a thing muſt ſtrongly affect the very moment: for, if it affects but little, it will have but little efficacy: but, if it be ſo forcibly impreſſed on the mind, as that the woman ſhould ſay her whole inſide is moved, then a future veſtige of the evil is boded; or if, in the very time of ſuch an idea ariſing, a horror and tremor are felt ſhaking the whole body, it is an infallible ſign that a veſtige is left; which does not happen, if there be no horror.

All phyſicians obſerve, that there is always a horror, when any commotion is made in the body that changes its actions; then 'a cold tremor trickles through the bones,' as Virgil ſays. He that is ill of an ague enjoys ſome days of health; but he perceives a cold ſhivering, and the fever ſoon comes upon him. I have heard from the experienced, whilſt the plague was rife, that, as ſoon as they felt a ſenſation, as it were from cold water being poured upon them, they were immediately taken ill of the plague. We ſhudder in the like manner, when the variolus poiſon infects us; when the ſtitch of the pleuriſy invades us; and that ſhuddering penetrates through the whole body: men feel then ſomething cold, which ſuſpends, as it were, for a time the vital motions; and it is propagated with tremor, and almoſt changes the whole body. I would be glad to have a preceptor, who could explain to me, how and whence this horror ariſes.

I alſo obſerved pregnant women to have had, in almoſt all theſe caſes, a ſpontaneous motion, and to have applied their hand to a certain part of the body, and that the fœtus then retained the mark impreſſed in the ſame part; if they had not moved their hand to it, ſcarce any thing heterogeneous would have happened. Hence women with child ſhould be cautious of moving their hand to a part that is not covered by their cloaths, leſt the deformity might afterwards be conſpicuous. But there is a ſimilar faculty in every man, which we cannot underſtand: Suppoſe a perſon's eyes inflamed, and, as it were, ſparkling with fire; if you look at him, you will alſo rub your eyes. He that

that ſees a ſordid ulcer in another's thigh will almoſt always take hold of or feel his own thigh; therefore we are true clock-work, exhibiting a conſonancy with external objects, and we are even involuntarily drawn away to geſticulations; and therefore, alſo, for ſuch ideas in women there is a much greater application of the hand to that part.

If the woman is afterwards delivered of a deformed fœtus, the mark of the imagination is always found in the place that has been touched; and, if ſhe had touched another part, the mark would have probably been in another place. The will is here of no effect, for there have been women who deſired to bring forth monſters, in order that they might promote their trade of begging, and yet had handſome children; but the contrary often takes place in others againſt their will. In this city (Leyden) the happy mother of ſeveral well-formed children was aſked an alms by a beggarman; and, to move compaſſion, he ſhewed her that he had two thumbs, and therefore a hand unfit for earning his bread: ſhe gives him an alms, ſuffers all that has been above obſerved, and is afterwards delivered of a child with two thumbs. I examined the bones of thoſe thumbs, and they were all as in the other thumb; and this happened to a woman whom, before and after, the like never befel.

I was acquainted with a noble lady, in this city, who had many beautiful children. As ſhe was ſitting in her parlour at the window, and was eight months gone with child, ſhe was accoſted by an impudent beggar with a red hair-lip; ſhe trembles all over, ſtrikes her mouth, and gives him an alms. Not long after, ſhe was delivered of a beautiful child, with the like wound, and as it were bloody. It was wonderful, in this caſe, that all the parts of the body were ſo well formed, and the only vice was in the lips, and the palate was perfectly ſlit within the noſtrils, as in that beggar.

A lady is ſtill living, in this city, who, in her pregnancy, wanted to have a fine mulberry ſhe ſaw on a tree. One chanced to fall on the tip of her noſe, which ſhe immediately rubbed. She was afterwards delivered of a girl, exceeding handſome, but had on the tip of her noſe as perfect a mulberry as any painter could draw, which afterwards, however, by the help of vinegar and ſalt ammoniac, ſo ſenſibly diminiſhed, as to leave no veſtige of it remaining.

A woman with child ſaw, at Mechlin, two ſoldiers fighting, one of which cut off the other's hand. She, in a fright, draws back her hand, and was delivered of a child maimed in one arm, which, from the cut-off hand, ſuſtained an hæmorrhage and died; and yet the hand was not found in the afterbirth, nor did any ill conſequences attend the woman.

When the Dutch defended Oſtend againſt the Spaniards, a Spaniſh ſoldier loſt his arm, and, being cured, went about begging, ſhewing the place bound up, which the wife of Mark de Vogelaar ſeeing, was ſeized with a horror and great internal commotions: ſhe afterwards brought forth a daughter without the right arm, and the ſhoulder ran ſo with blood, that the

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ſurgeon was obliged to ſtop and conſolidate it, to prevent the child's dying of an hæmorrhage; and yet the arm was not found in the after-birth. The infant was healed, and, marrying at a proper time, lived to the age of ſeventy-ſix.

The duke of Alva having ordered three hundred citizens to be put to death together at Antwerp, a lady that was with child was very deſirous of ſeeing the ſight. She was not long returned home, when, taken with the pains of labour, ſhe was delivered of a child without a head, which alſo was not found in the after-birth. Some authors are of opinion, that this cannot happen when the fœtus is thoroughly formed; but, whether ſo or not, the thing happens, and the proofs of it cannot be conteſted.

Father Malebranche relates, in his 'Recherche de la Verité,' that there was a young man, an idiot from his birth, in the Hoſpital of the Incurables at Paris, whoſe limbs were broke in all the places where it is cuſtomary to break the limbs of thoſe who are condemned to ſuffer upon the wheel. He lived in this condition near twenty years. Numbers were curious to ſee and examine his broken limbs, and, among others, the queen. The cauſe of his misfortune was his mother's going to ſee, when ſhe was with child of him, a criminal broke upon the wheel. Every ſtroke the criminal received vehemently ſtruck the mother's imagination, and the infant was broke exactly in the ſame parts of the body.

Father Malebranche relates another inſtance of the force of imagination, which happened at ſolemniſing the canoniſation of St. Pius, at Paris. A pregnant woman, having too attentively conſidered that ſaint's image, was delivered of a child perfectly reſembling it: it had the face of an old man, as far as could be expreſſed in a beardleſs infant: its arms ran acroſs its breaſt; its eyes were raiſed to heaven, its forehead was very narrow, becauſe the forehead of the image was raiſed towards the vaulted roof of the church, looking up, as it were, to heaven: in ſhort, the child was exceeding like the image, according as the mother had formed it by the force of her imagination. The author adds, "Every one could ſee it at Paris as well as myſelf, the infant being kept for a conſiderable time in ſpirits of wine."

Here is a hiſtory of various caſes, out of which I have ſelected ſuch particulars as incredulity cannot diſprove! But I do not underſtand how this connection is between the mother's idea and the corporeal change of the fœtus; neither do I find it properly accounted for by any author. None of them have found ſuch principles founded in nature, from which, being underſtood and applied, is known a ſufficient reaſon of this effect, and anſwering to this idea. I am therefore greatly ſurpriſed, that Malebranche undertook to explain it. He ſays, the fibres of the mother's body are affected in a certain place by certain ideas; grant that this ſometimes happens: He ſays, that, on thoſe ideas being formed, certain determinate ſpirits run through the body: this alſo ſeems true: but what then? The mother is moved, not changed, and yet the infant is changed; but, Has the infant, whilſt in its mother's womb, the

the ſame motions, ſenſations, and ideas? This is obſcure, yet we may alſo grant it. But how can the infant's bones be broke, and not the mother's? He ſays, this happens by percuſſion and horror; but this is an effect, and not a cauſe; and it does not appear why the mother's bones ſhould not be broke, which are harder and therefore more brittle.

Paracelſus has deduced this from other cauſes: he ſays, that there is in man an imagination, which really effects and brings to paſs the things that did not before exiſt; for a man, by imagination willing to move his body, moves it in fact; but, by his imagination and the commerce of inviſible powers, he may alſo move another body; and this he calls MAGICAL IMAGINATION, which, by the help of demons, or inviſible ſpirits, can communicate the force of imagination to other bodies, and operate at a diſtance. Van Helmont is of the ſame opinion; but, for my part, I deſpair to illuſtrate this matter, and do think it inexplicable, or that the cauſe of the phænomenon is unknown to us.

Of the common ſenſory affected by poiſons. From the ſame.

THOSE ſubſtances are called poiſons in medicine, which on being applied to a human living body, ſo change all its actions, as not to be conquered by the force of life, whence that vital force is deſtroyed; but medicaments are ſubſtances, which ſo change the actions, as to ſubdue the diſeaſe, and life triumphs over diſeaſes; therefore medicaments ceaſe to act in a determinate time. And aliments are ſubſtances, which are ſo changed by a living body, as to be aſſimilated to it. Now the degrees of poiſons are various, according to their peculiar violence, quantity, and the part they act upon. Half a grain of the glaſs of antimony is a ſtrong emetic, but given to the amount of a drachm is a very potent poiſon. Moſt poiſons act only on the ſtomach. If the crocus of metals, well prepared, is applied to the eyes as a collyrium, it takes away ſpecks in the pellucid membranes of the eye, and occaſions no pain; if mixed up with plaſters, and applied to the naked nerves in a wound, it is a good detergent; if taſted, it has no taſte; but, if one or two grains are received into the ſtomach, a prodigious vomiting will enſue, and, from a greater quantity, death.

An ounce of it given to horſes affords a general remedy for their violent diſeaſes, and yet they are but little purged by it. Therefore the ſtomach and its nerves are ſo conſtituted, by the Author of nature, which, indeed, ſeems inexplicable from the nature of the nerves, that the ſubſtance, which is not poiſonous elſewhere, is ſo in the ſtomach.

The berries of night-ſhade do no harm in the eye; their taſte is ſweet, their ſmell flat; if one of them ſhould be received into the ſtomach, a perturbation ſuddenly ariſes in every action; if you give the gilla of Theophraſtus, and the berry is vomited up, the brain again recovers its former ſtate. This too cannot be explained from the affections of the nerves in general, but only from a phyſical fitneſs between this juice and the nerves

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of the ſtomach. If opium ſpread in a plaſter is applied to the external ſkin, it cauſes, in the part it is applied to, an exceeding great heat, and painful; it excites a bliſter, eroſion, and incipient gangrene; it has a nauſeous and virulent ſmell; if applied to the naked nerves, it takes away all ſenſation; if received into the ſtomach, it firſt cauſes a ſenſation of mirth, and then a ſnoring and apoplexy; its efficacy laſts about eight hours, unleſs it cauſes death by being given in too great a doſe; when its force is quite enervated, the next day vomiting enſues, in which the opium pill is often again brought up, ſo that this remedy againſt vomiting now excites it. The Starkeyan pills conſiſt of opium, hellebore, liquorice, and a ſoap made of alkali and cold-drawn oil. The author writes of them, that they cauſe ſweating, mitigate the ſevereſt pains, bring forth the morbific matter, and ſo make an excellent purge; but thoſe effects are proper to opium. When the brain is affected, a nauſea and vomiting often enſue; ſo that every thing affecting the brain, affects alſo the ſtomach, and whatever affects the ſtomach, affects likewiſe the brain.

We are in a great meaſure obliged to think, that opium is a poiſon; it bears, as it were, the ſway in the ſtomach, checking by a ſmall doſe the diſeaſes that ariſe from the ſtomach, and at the ſame time compoſing the brain; but if given againſt the diſeaſe proper to the brain, which is the phrenitis, the diſorder moſt commonly will be increaſed. It takes away not only pain, but alſo corrects the humours of the body. We ſee conſumptive perſons, from the eroſion of their lungs, cough almoſt every time they draw their breath, and their diſorder is made worſe by coughing, becauſe the ulcerated place is perpetually irritated; if this coughing continues during the night, a little phlegm is evacuated; but, let one grain of opium be given, they will have no cough, and will ſleep compoſed; but in the morning they expectorate a drachm or two of purulent matter. If taken in a greater quantity, it is poiſon, as we have ſeen in a phyſician tired of life; and in another, who repenting of his raſh action, by taking vinegar enervated its force, and afterwards felt no bad conſequences from it. It ſuſpends not only the ſenſes, but alſo motions, nay, almoſt all excretions, and hence thoſe who uſe it, have no evacuation of urine for ſix or eight hours; even when its force is vaniſhed, they ſtill complain of a want of this evacuation. If alſo you give a grain of opium to a man labouring under a diarrhœa, it will be intirely ſtopt.

There is therefore ſomething very wonderful in thoſe nerves, that, from being touched by thoſe bodies, ſuch a change ſhould happen in all the functions, which ceaſes, as ſoon as ſuch body is diſengaged from the ſtomach.

A lawyer had been taken ill of the cholic; he was adviſed the uſe of aniſe-ſeed; but, by miſtake, the apothecary had given him the ſeeds of henbane. The pain was allayed, but he became very delirious. All his functions were diſordered; he ſat by the fire, talked much, but did not ſpeak one coherent ſentence. A phyſician being ſent for, gave him a vomit of vitriol; the

ſeed was thrown up, and he was immediately delivered.

There is an umbelliferous plant, called ſium, with the eruca leaf, or water-hemlock, by Geſner, which has a ſucculent bulb, white, not unlike a turnep; and, being wounded, diſtils a plenty of milk, that grows yellow in the air; its ſmell is not virulent, and its pleaſant taſte allures unwary children. If but a ſmall particle of it adheres to the ſtomach, it makes an intire change in all the animal functions, cauſing vertigoes, horrible imaginations, terrors, convulſions, the abolition of all the external and internal ſenſes, and, in three or four hours time, inevitable death.

This body then, though apparently ſo innocent, will very ſuddenly bring on death. If diſcharged by a ſpontaneous vomit, no harm will enſue; if an emetic is given in the midſt of the mad fit, all the ſymptoms will ceaſe when the ſtomach is eaſed. Its chief power is therefore exerciſed on the nerves of the ſtomach, for, if it were mixed with the blood, a vomit would not have been immediately of ſervice. Therefore Van Helmont was not in the wrong, when he placed the ſeat of life in the ſtomach, and judged that it extended its influence and power for health to diſtant and various parts of the body; for, the ſtomach being freed, the head is freed; and nothing elſe remains for amendment.

It has been obſerved, that thorn-apple is attended with the ſame ſymptoms with water-hemlock, but with this difference, that its ſmell is intolerable. A gardener having thrown out of a garden ſome thorn-apple into the public highway, ſome boys ſeeing it, examined the heads, and ate the ſeed: they were ſeized with all the above-mentioned ſymptoms, and thoſe that did not vomit, died.

The belladona, or night-ſhade with black berries, intices every paſſer-by; there is nothing ungrateful in its berries; their juice has a purple colour, ſweet taſte, and no fetid ſmell; yet ſwallowed down they kill one much the ſame way. A vomit is a preſent remedy; but their poiſon may be corrected, and the patient at length delivered, by taking a good quantity of vinegar.

Stalpartius Vander Weil relates the caſe of two citizens of the Hague, who, having taſted the root of the œnanthes that is like hemlock, with viroſe juice, were taken ill not long after with a great heat of the throat and ſtomach, which was followed by a perturbation of the mind, vertigo, heart burn, nauſea, flux of the belly, running of blood from the noſe, and ſuch violent convulſions, that one of them died in two, and the other in three hours.

Van Helmont taſted the root of the napellus or monkſhood on the tip only of his tongue, and in a moment his faculty of underſtanding and thinking was much brighter, which gave him great pleaſure: at length, in about two hours after, he was twice attacked by a ſlight vertigo, and he then found his underſtanding as uſual; and, though he ſometimes afterwards taſted of the ſame, nothing of the like ever more happened to him. The ſmoking of tobacco for the firſt time is attended with ſome-

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thing of the kind, which, however, does not afterwards happen. If one ſhould chance to drink cold wine ſo ſuddenly as not to warm in his ſtomach, then the pylorus and upper orifice remain ſhut; and, the wine afterwards contracting warmth, the ſtomach ſwells, the party is choaked, as it were, and has a kind of apoplexy: if then, with a bit of ſponge moiſtened with oil or honey, and wrapped about the end of a knitting-needle, the fauces are tickled, the wine is vomited up, and the party is freed from all dangerous ſymptoms.

When Otto Tachenius, according to the preſcription of Johannes Agricola, had ſo often endeavoured to ſublime arſenic, that it was at length to remain fixed in the bottom of the veſſel; and when, after many ſublimations, he had opened the veſſel, he breathed an air pleaſant and grateful to his palate; but in leſs than half an hour he felt his ſtomach aching and contracted, with a convulſion of all his limbs, difficult breathing, bloody urine, and a great heat; being afterwards ſuddenly ſeized with cholic pains, he remained contracted for a full half-hour: being recruited with milk and oil, he found himſelf much better; yet a ſlow fever, like an hectic, remained on him the whole winter, which he extinguiſhed by decoctions of vulnerary herbs, the eating of cabbage, the uſe of orange-juice, oil, and ſalt; and by theſe remedies he perfectly recovered. Here is an example of all the functions of the common ſenſory hurt, from the olfactory nerves being only affected.

Of the effect of rains, of marſhes and bogs, ſubterraneous wood, and ſubterraneous waters. From M. Buffon's Theory of the Earth.

RAINS, and the running waters produced by them, detach continually, from the tops and ridges of mountains, ſand, earth, gravel, &c. and carry them into the plains, whence ſtreams and rivers bear away a part into lower plains, and often to the ſea. Plains are therefore filled up ſucceſſively, and riſe by little and little, and mountains diminiſh conſtantly and become low, which diminution is perceptible in ſeveral parts. Joſeph Blancanus relates facts in regard to this, which were well known in his time, and which prove that the mountains were become ſo low as to diſcover villages and caſtles from ſeveral parts, whence they could not be formerly ſeen. In the ſhire of Derby in England, the ſteeple of the village Crath was not viſible in 1572, from a certain mountain, upon account of the height of another mountain interpoſed, which extends into Hopton and Wirkſworth; and 80 or 100 years afterwards this ſteeple was ſeen, and even a part of the church. Dr. Plot cites a like example of a mountain between Sibbertoft and Aſhby in the county of Northampton. The waters carry not only along with them the lighteſt parts of mountains, as earth, ſand, gravel, and ſmall ſtones, but even roll away large rocks, which conſiderably diminiſhes their height. In general, the higher mountains are, and their inclination more ſteep, the more the rocks ſeem to be cut off from them. The higheſt mountains of Wales have

rocks extremely ſtrait, and very naked; the ſhivers of thoſe rocks are ſeen lying in large heaps at their bottom. It is froſt and water that ſeparate and bear them down: ſo that it is not only the mountains of ſand and earth which rains lower, but alſo, as it appears, they attack the hardeſt rocks, and drag along their fragments into the vallies: And, theſe rocks and large ſtones, diſperſed here and there, are much more common in countries where the mountains are of ſand and freeſtone, than in thoſe where they are of marble and clay, becauſe the ſand which ſerves as a baſe to the rock, is a leſs ſolid foundation than clay.

To give an idea of the quantity of earth which the rains ſeparate from the mountains, and bear down into the vallies, we may cite a fact related by Dr. Plot: He ſays, in his Natural Hiſtory of Staffordſhire, that a great number of pieces of money, ſtruck in the time of Edward IV. were found at 18 feet depth in the earth; ſo that this ground, which is marſhy, ſwelled or was augmented about a foot in 11 years, or one inch and $\frac{1}{12}$ in a year. A like obſervation may be made on trees, which have been dug up at 17 feet depth, under which were found medals of Julius Cæſar; and thus earth, carried off from mountains into plains by running ſtreams, increaſes very conſiderably the elevation of the ground of plains.

This gravel, ſand, and earth, which the waters ſeparate from the mountains, and carry into the plains, form their beds which muſt not be confounded with the ancient and original beds of the earth. We ſhould rank in the claſs of theſe new beds thoſe of ſand-ſtone, ſoft ſtone, gravel, and ſand, of which the grains are waſhed and rounded; and to it ſhould be likewiſe referred the beds of ſtone that are formed by a kind of ſediment and incruſtation, as we cannot deduce their origin from the motion and ſediments of the waters of the ſea. In thoſe ſandy, ſoft, and imperfect ſtones, are found an infinity of vegetables, leaves of trees, land or river ſhells, ſmall bones of land animals but never ſhells, or other marine productions; which proves evidently, as well as their little ſolidity, that thoſe beds are formed on the ſurface of the dry land, and that they are much newer than marble and other ſtone which contain ſhells, anciently formed in the ſea. Sand-ſtone, and all thoſe new ſtones, appear to have hardneſs and ſolidity when they are extracted; but, if uſed for any purpoſe, the air and rains are found to diſſolve them very ſoon; their ſubſtance is even ſo different from true ſtone, that, when they are reduced into ſmall parts in order to make ſand of them, they are ſoon converted into a ſort of earth and mud: the ſtalactites likewiſe, and other ſtony concretions, which M. Tournefort had taken for marbles that had vegetated, are not true ſtones no more than thoſe formed by incruſtations. Sand-ſtone is therefore an imperfect matter, different from ſtone and earth, and having its origin from both by the means of the water of rains, as ſtony incruſtations have theirs from the ſediment of the waters of certain ſprings; and thus their beds are not ancient, and have not been formed, as others, by the ſediment of the waters of the ſea.

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The beds of peat or turf muſt likewiſe be conſidered as new beds, produced by the ſucceſſive accumulation of half-rotted trees and other vegetables, which were no otherwiſe preſerved than by happening to be in bituminous grounds, which have hindered their intirely corrupting. In all thoſe new beds of ſand or ſoft ſtone, or of ſtone formed by ſediments, or of peat, no marine production is found: but, on the contrary, many vegetables, the bones of land animals, river and land ſhells, as may be ſeen in the meadows of Northamptonſhire near Aſhby, where a great number of ſnail-ſhells have been found with plants, herbs, and ſeveral river ſhells, well preſerved at the depth of ſome feet under ground, without any ſea-ſhells. The waters that flow upon the ſurface of the earth, have formed all thoſe new beds by often changing their channels, and ſpreading on all ſides; a part of thoſe waters penetrates to the interior, and flows through the clefts of rocks and ſtones; and this is the reaſon that no water is found on high lands, or on the tops of hills, becauſe all the heights of the earth are generally compoſed of ſtone and rocks, eſpecially towards the ſummit. In order to find water, the ſtone and the rocks muſt be dug into till their baſe is reached; that is, till clay or firm earth appears, on which thoſe rocks reſt; and no water is found unleſs the thickneſs of the ſtone is pierced through and through, as may be obſerved in ſeveral wells dug in high grounds; and when the height of the rocks, that is, the thickneſs of the ſtone that muſt be pierced, is very conſiderable, as in high mountains, where the rocks are often 1000 feet high, it is impoſſible to ſink wells therein, and conſequently to have water. There are likewiſe prodigious tracts of land where water is abſolutely wanting, as in Arabia Petræa, a deſert where it never rains, where burning ſands cover the whole ſurface of the earth; where there is ſcarce any vegetable earth, and where the few plants that grow, faint away by drought: Springs and wells are ſo rare here, that five only are reckoned from Cairo to Mount Sinai, and their water is beſides bitter and brackiſh.

When the waters on the ſurface of the earth cannot find channels to flow in, they form bogs and marſhes; the moſt famous marſhes of Europe are thoſe of Muſcovy, at the ſource of the Tanais; thoſe of Finland, where are the great marſhes Savolax and Enaſak: there are marſhes alſo in Holland, in Weſtphalia, and in ſeveral other flat countries: In Aſia, there are the marſhes of the Euphrates, thoſe of Tartary, the Palus Mœotis; yet in general there are fewer in Aſia and Africa, than in Europe: but America is, as it were, a continued bog in all its plains; and the great number of them is a much better proof of the newneſs of the country, and the fewneſs of the inhabitants, than of their little induſtry.

There are very large marſhes in England, in the county of Lincoln, near the ſea, which has loſt a deal of ground on one ſide, and gained it on the other. In the old ground are found a great number of trees buried beneath the new ground which has been formed by the waters. A great number of trees are in like manner found in Scotland,

at the mouth of the river Neſs. Near Bruges in Flanders, digging to 40 or 50 feet in depth, are found a very great number of trees as cloſe to one another as in a foreſt; the trunks, the branches, and the leaves are ſo well preſerved, that the different ſpecies of trees are eaſily diſtinguiſhed. Five hundred years ago that land, where theſe trees are found, was a ſea, and before that time there is no account or tradition that this land had ever exiſted; but it muſt have been land, as theſe trees grew and vegetated; and thus the ground, which in far diſtant times was firm land covered with wood, was afterwards covered with the waters of the ſea, which brought there 40 or 50 feet depth of earth, and afterwards thoſe waters retired. A great number of ſubterraneous trees have likewiſe been found at Hull in the county of York, twelve miles below the city, on the river Humber; ſome of them are ſo large that they ſerve for building; and it is aſſured, perhaps without good foundation, that this wood is as durable and ſerviceable as oak; and it is cut into ſmall rods, and long ſplinters, which are ſold into the neighbouring towns, and the people uſe them for lighting their pipes. All thoſe trees appear broken, and the trunks are ſeparated from their roots, as trees which the violence of a hurricane or inundation had broken and carried away; the wood nearly reſembles that of the fir-tree, has the ſame ſmell when burnt, and makes coals of the ſame ſort. In the iſle of Man in a bog ſix miles long and three broad, called the Curragh, are found ſubterraneous fir-trees, and, though they lie 18 or 20 feet deep, they are notwithſtanding firm on their roots. The like are found in all great bogs, in quagmires, and in moſt marſhy places, in the counties of Somerſet, Cheſter, Lancaſter, and Stafford. There are certain places where trees are found under ground, cut, ſawed, ſquared, and worked by men; axes and bills have been likewiſe found between Birmingham in Warwickſhire and Bromley in Lincolnſhire; and there are hills raiſed of fine and light ſand, which rains and winds carry and tranſport away, by leaving dry and uncovered the roots of great firs, whereon the impreſſion of the axe ſeems yet as freſh as if it had been juſt made. Thoſe hills might have been, no doubt, formed as downs, by heaps of ſand borne along and accumulated by the ſea, and on which thoſe firs might have grown; and they might afterwards be covered with other ſands, collected as the former, by inundations or violent winds. A great number of thoſe ſubterraneous trees are found alſo in the marſhy grounds of Holland, in Friezland, and near Groningen; and it is from thence that comes the peat that is burnt all over the country.

In the ground are found an infinity of large and ſmall trees of almoſt every kind, as fir, oak, birch, beech, yew, white-thorn, willow, and aſh; in the marſhes of Lincolnſhire, along the river Ouſe, and in the county of York, in Hatfield-chace, the trees are ſtraight, and planted as ſeen in a foreſt. The oaks are very hard, and are uſed in buildings, where they laſt for a long time; the aſh is ſoft, and crumbles into duſt, as does the willow; ſome of theſe trees have been found ſquared, others ſawed, others bored,

ed, together with broken axes, and hatchets whoſe form reſembles that of knives uſed in ſacrifices. Nuts, acorns, and cones of firs, have been there found alſo in great quantities. Several other marſhy parts of England and Ireland abound with trunks of trees, as well as the marſhes of France and Switzerland, of Savoy and Italy.

In the city of Modena, and within four miles of its environs, in whatever place they dig, when they come to the depth of 63 feet, and have pierced the earth 5 feet deeper with an augre, the water ſprings up with ſo great a force that the well is filled in a ſhort time almoſt to the top; and this water flows continually, neither diminiſhing nor increaſing by rain or drought; what is further remarkable in this ground, is, that, when they come to 14 feet deep, they find the ruins of an ancient town, paved ſtreets, floors, houſes, different pieces of moſaic work; after which they find a pretty ſolid earth, and which might be believed to have been never ſtirred; yet underneath they find a moiſt earth, and mixed with vegetables; and at 26 feet trees quite intire, as hazels with nuts on them, and a great quantity of branches and leaves of trees; at 28 feet deep they find a ſoft chalk mixed with a great many ſhells, and this bed is 11 feet deep; after which are again found vegetables, leaves, and branches, and ſo alternately chalk and earth mixed with vegetables to the depth of 63 feet, at which depth there is a bed of ſand mixed with ſmall gravel, and ſuch ſhells as are found on the coaſts of the ſea of Italy: thoſe ſucceſſive beds of marſhy ſoil and chalk are always found in the ſame order, in whatever part they dig into, and ſometimes the augre meets with large trunks of trees which muſt be bored through; and this gives the workmen great trouble; here are alſo found bones, pit-coal, flints, and pieces of iron. Ramazzini, who relates theſe facts, believes that the gulph of Venice formerly extended as far as Modena, and beyond it; and that in ſucceſſion of time, rivers, and, perhaps, inundations of the ſea, had gradually formed this ground.

I ſhall not here enlarge farther on the varieties of thoſe beds, of new formation; it is ſufficient to have ſhewn, that they have no other cauſes than the running or ſtagnant waters on the ſurface of the earth, and that they are never ſo hard, or ſolid, as the old beds that have been formed under the waters of the ſea.

Obſervations on the cicada, or locuſt of America, which appears periodically once in 16 or 17 years. By Moſes Bartram, 1766. Communicated by the ingenious Peter Collinſon, Eſq;

ON the 8th of June, 1766, I took ſeveral twigs of different kinds of trees, on which I then ſaw cicadas or locuſts, darting (as it is called) to lay their eggs; of thoſe twigs I put ſome in empty phials; ſome in phials, with a little water; and ſome I ſtuck in a pot of earth, which I kept moiſt, in order to preſerve the twigs freſh.

July 21, the eggs in the twigs in the phial with water hatched, as did thoſe in the twigs in the pot of earth, ſoon after them;

but the twigs in the empty phial being withered, the eggs periſhed; yet I have obſerved that on twigs accidentally broken off in the woods, if they lie near the ground in the ſhade ſo as to be kept moiſt, the eggs in them will hatch in their due time; but in thoſe that are expoſed to the ſun, they ſurely die.

The young locuſts that were hatched in the twigs in the phial, ran down the twigs to the water, on which they floated about four and twenty hours, and then died; thoſe that were hatched in the twigs in the pot of earth, ran down the twigs immediately to the earth, and entered it at the firſt opening they could find, which they ſearched for eagerly, as if already ſenſible of danger, by being expoſed to the light of the ſun.

I have obſerved that in the natural way the eggs are uſually hatched in ſix weeks; but if, by the luxuriance of the growth of the ſhoots into which the eggs are darted, the rind of the tree cloſes and confines them, they will in that ſituation remain ſeveral months, till by ſome lucky accident they are diſengaged, and then they will hatch in a few minutes after, and ſeek their retreat in the earth, in the ſame manner as thoſe hatched in the uſual time. But many periſh by being thus impriſoned.

Viewed through a microſcope the moment they are hatched, they appear in every reſpect as perfect as at the time of their laſt transformation, when they riſe out of the earth, put off their ſcaly covering, expand their wings, diſplay their gaudy colours, dart forth their eggs, and after a few days exiſtence, to fulfil the wiſe purpoſes of their maker, cloſe the period of their lives by an eaſy death. How aſtoniſhing therefore and inſcrutable is the deſign of providence in the production of this inſect, that is brought into life, according to our apprehenſion, only to ſeek into the depths of the earth, there to remain in darkneſs, till the appointed time comes when it aſcends again into light by a wonderful reſurrection! The means by which they are enabled to continue their ſpecies, is no leſs ſingular than their manner of exiſtence. The females are furniſhed with a bearded dart, with which they pierce the tender ſhoots of all trees they happen to light upon, without regard to ſituation or ſpecies; many therefore periſh by the quick growth of the trees in which the eggs are darted; and more perhaps by being laid in twigs that hang over ſtreams or ſtanding waters. The dart by which the operation is performed, conſiſts of three parts; a middle, and two ſides: The middle is hollow, through which the eggs are darted, and the two ſides ſerve for a covering to defend it. Theſe may eaſily be taken apart, by ſlipping the middle through the grooves of the two ſides, and it is by ſlipping the two outſide parts by each other rapidly, that they work a kind of ſlant hole in the ſoft twig they make choice of, till they reach the pith, and then they eject their eggs into it to the number of twelve; when this is performed, they begin another hole cloſe by the ſide of the former, and ſo continue to work till they have carried along two rows, each row con-

conſiſting of twelve or more holes. They then remove to another twig and proceed as before; and ſo from twig to twig till they have exhauſted their ſtore, after which they ſoon expire.

I have not yet been able to diſcover the full depth to which theſe little animals deſcend. Some, I have heard, have been found thirty feet deep. I myſelf have ſeen them ten.

They do not, however ſeem to travel to any great diſtance horizontally; for they are ſeldom found far from the woods, unleſs in grounds that have been newly cleared. It often, however, happens, that in the long period of their torpid ſtate, great tracts of country are cleared in North America from trees, and converted into arable or paſture; hence it is no unuſual thing to ſee them leave their cells in thoſe plain grounds, and haſten to ſome adjoining fence to put off their incumbrance, and prepare themſelves for flight. This they do always in the night, by crawling to ſome tree, along a fence, or among buſhes or ſtrong graſs; and it is remarkable, that they differ in this from every other inſect in its chryſalis ſtate; for inſtead of being wrapped up in a plain covering, which confines the inhabitants to a certain ſpot till it burſts, they have a covering fitted to their form, in which they can travel to a conſiderable diſtance; and which they cannot leave till they find ſome ſolid ſubſtance, in which they fix their claws, and then, with an effort which requires the utmoſt exertion of their ſtrength, they burſt their caſe, which always opens from the ſhoulders to the forepart of the head, out of which they crawl, leaving it ſticking faſt behind. Thouſands of theſe caſes may be ſeen in a morning, ſticking to all parts of trees, which being hardened in the ſun, have a ſcaly-like ſubſtance, which not being flexible after it is dry, often ſo incumbers them before they can put it off, that many periſh in the attempt. For this reaſon, they always chuſe the night for this operation; and wait for the enlivening influence of the warm ſun to ſtrengthen and give conſiſtence to their wings, which at firſt are white, ſoft, and moiſt, but ſoon aſſume a dark brown colour, with a firmneſs that enables them to fly, and a tranſparency that adds a beauty to their appearance which before was wanting.

It is remarkable, that in every ſtate of this inſect's exiſtence, it is eagerly purſued for food by others. In the very egg, it is the prey of ants and birds of every kind; in that of the grub, by hogs, dogs, and all carnivorous animals that can unearth it; and in its moſt perfect ſtate, not only by many kinds of beaſts and birds, but even by men, many of the Indians, it is ſaid, feeding ſumptuouſly upon them.

Soon after they arrive at their laſt ſtate of transformation, they ſeek mates to enable them to continue their ſpecies; and in this too, they are very ſingular; the female, as has been obſerved, is furniſhed with a dart, the ſhaft of which, takes its riſe below the middle of the inſect; on the contrary, the male projects his dart from behind, and fixes it near the ſhaft of that of the female, where it remains for many hours together; during

during which time, they are not to be ſeparated without laceration.

During the ſeaſon of copulation, from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet, the noiſe they make is ſo loud and perpetual, that little elſe can be heard in the woods where they abound; and it is doubtful, whether, during this ſeaſon, or indeed during their whole time of exiſtence in this ſtate, they eat any thing, or ſubſiſt only by ſipping the dew; for which purpoſe they ſeem to be furniſhed with a long tube, extending from their heads flat to their breaſt, and terminating between their legs, without the power of altering its poſition. Other than this tube they ſeem to have none for the purpoſe of ſubſiſtence. In ſhort, the natural hiſtory of this little inſect, ſeems highly to deſerve the attention of the curious.

M. BARTRAM.

Experiments on a hog's bladder.—From the hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

M. De la Hire has given an account to the academy of ſome very curious experiments he had made on the bladder. Having taken the bladder of a hog quite freſh and very clean, he filled it with air, till it appeared to be as tenſe as it poſſibly could be. In this ſtate there was no room to doubt of its being exactly cloſed up, and that the air could not get out of it; but, having made an aperture in the bladder, it flagged immediately of itſelf: afterwards, whilſt it was ſtill quite freſh, he turned it ſo as that the part that was outward in the natural ſtate became the inward; and having poured water into it to about three fifths of what it might contain, immediately after the water began to ooze or drop out at ſeveral places, and in twelve hours time the half of the water was already run out. This water, ſo filtrated, was tinged with a very deep red colour, though the bladder ſeemed clear and tranſparent before the experiment. Hence it was judged, that the ſtrong tenſion of the bladder, when it was filled with air, had made the blood to paſs out that was contained in the infinity of the ſmall blood-veſſels with which this membrane is diſſeminated, and that this blood, which was ſhed between the fibres, had been carried off by the water that oozed through, and gave it this ſtrong tincture. In fact, the bladder became very white after the water was intirely run out.

Hereupon M. de la Hire conjectured, that the membrane of the bladder muſt be pierced with an infinity of ſmall holes, each furniſhed with its valve; and that thoſe valves are ſo diſpoſed, that water may enter therein from without inwardly in the natural ſtate of the bladder; but, on the contrary, that neither water nor air can paſs through it from within outwardly, howſoever great the compreſſion of the air may be when ſhut up in this membrane. The moſt proper conſtruction of thoſe valves for producing theſe effects is, according to M. de la Hire, the ſame as may be obſerved in the valves of the colon of ſome fiſhes. The valves of the bladder will therefore be as papillæ formed by a duct that proceeds by diminiſhing towards the interior of the membrane,

brane, and which may give an eaſy entrance to the ſurrounding liquids; but which, on the contrary, ſhut exactly the paſſage from within to without in flatting and lying upon the internal body of the bladder.

M. de la Hire drew from this experiment ſome conjectures in regard to the dropſy, which, according to him, might be only a diſtemper of the bladder, whoſe pores or apertures ſhould happen to be ſtopt up by ſome cauſe or other: In this ſtate it is eaſy to comprehend it would no longer receive the waters of the lower belly, which come there continually by paſſing through the membranes of the ſtomach, as M. Mery has experienced.

It is, perhaps, alſo, by this way, that the mineral waters which are drank, are ſo eaſily and readily evacuated.

Obſervations on ſome extraordinary ſymptoms occaſioned by nutmeg taken in too great a quantity. By Dr. Jacob Schimidius.—From the Ephemerides of the Curious.

Unica nux prodeſt, nocet altera, tertia mors eſt. Schol. Salern.

One nut is wholeſome, a ſecond is hurtful, a third is mortal.

SEVERAL authors pretend that it is the common nut which is pointed out by this verſe of the ſchool of Salernum, and that it was only intended thereby to ſignify, that, in general, it is an aliment of a very bad quality, in whatever ſmall quantity it may be eaten. It appears however more probable, that the authors of that work had in view three different kinds of nuts, and that their meaning is, that the nutmeg is of ſervice to health, that the common nut is on the contrary hurtful to the body, and that the nux vomica is a ſort of poiſon. But what ſhould one think, if I undertook to prove that the nutmeg alone poſſeſſes theſe three different qualities; that it is at the ſame time ſalutary in certain caſes, in others dangerous, and that it is ſometimes mortal; and that conſequently the verſe of the ſchool of Salernum had no other nut in view but this? Be the matter as it may, I ſhall relate, in a few words, what I obſerved touching its properties and effects.

A gentleman of Lower Sileſia, about thirty-ſix years old, of a good conſtitution, and who enjoyed a good ſtate of health, having felt, during ſome days, a bellyach occaſioned by wind, took it in his head, in order to mitigate the pain, to eat four nutmegs, which weighed all together two ounces, and he drank, in eating them, ſome glaſſes of beer; which he had no ſooner done but was ſeized with a great heat, a violent pain in the head, a vertigo and delirium, and inſtantly deprived of the uſe of ſight, ſpeech, and all his ſenſes. He was put to bed, where he ſpent two days and two nights; his body was oppreſſed with laſſitude, always drowſy, yet without being able to ſleep. Being called upon to ſee him the third day, I found on him all the ſymptoms I have related, and he was in that lethargic ſtate which is called a coma vigil, with a weak and intermitting pulſe. I made him immediately take ſome cephalic

lic remedies, cordials, and among others, the ſpirit of cephalic vitriol, and the eſſence of caſtoreum, in good ſpirit of ſal ammoniac. The fourth day he recovered a little out of his lethargic ſtate, but had abſolutely loſt his memory, ſo as not to remember the leaſt thing he had done in his life. A continued fever then came upon him, accompanied by an obſtinate watchfulneſs: a palpitation of the heart ſeemed to be the forerunner of other ſymptoms, and he was finally ſtruck with a palſy in all his limbs.

At the expiration of eight days, he recovered the uſe of reaſon, and told us, that, during the firſt four days of his illneſs, he ſeemed to himſelf to have conſtantly a thick veil before his eyes, and that a great number of ſparks and flaſhes continually iſſued from it. All the bad ſymptoms of this malady yielded at laſt ſucceſſively to the continued uſe of remedies appropriated to his ſtate; and in three months time he was perfectly recovered, but he was particularly indebted, for his cure, to mercurial and ammoniacal remedies.

According to chemical principles, it might perhaps be ſaid, that the aromatic and oily ſalt contained in nutmeg, of which this patient had taken too large a doſe, had immediately excited ſo great an agitation in the humours, and ſo rapid a motion in the animal ſpirits, that in ſome meaſure they had contracted an igneous nature; and that a viſcid and narcotic ſulphur, which reſides likewiſe in the nutmeg, though in a leſs ſenſible manner, being carried at the ſame time into the maſs of the blood, by ſuddenly fixing the animal ſpirits ſo exalted, and intercepting their courſe in the nerves, had afterwards cauſed the ſtupor in the limbs, the aphony, and the palſy. But I leave others to give us an explanation of theſe phænomena, and I have only in view, by communicating this obſervation, to ſhew that the immoderate uſe of nutmeg may be attended with very great danger.

An account of a Dwarf kept in the palace of the late King of Poland. Tranſlated from the laſt vol. of Buffon's *Natural Hiſtory, juſt publiſhed.*

THE parents of this dwarf were healthy ſtrong peaſants; who affirmed, that at the time of his birth, he ſcarcely weighed a pound and a quarter. It is not known what were then his dimenſions, but one may judge they were very ſmall, as he was preſented upon a plate to be baptized, and for a long time had a wooden ſhoe for his bed. His mouth, though well proportioned to the reſt of his body, was not large enough to receive the nipple of the mother; he was ſuckled therefore by a goat, and ſhe performed the part of a nurſe admirably well. When ſix months old he had the ſmall-pox, and recovered without any other aſſiſtance than the care of the mother and the milk of the goat. At the age of eighteen months he could articulate ſome words. At two years he could ſupport himſelf upon his legs, and walk almoſt without aſſiſtance; a pair of ſhoes were then made for him, which were no more than an inch and a half

half in length. He was attacked by ſeveral diſeaſes; but there were no marks of any other diſeaſe on the ſkin beſides the ſmall-pox.—He was now ſix years of age: hitherto his food had been garden-ſtuff, bacon, and potatoes; his height was about fifteen inches, and he did not weigh more than thirteen pounds; his perſon was agreeable and well proportioned; he was in perfect health, but there was little appearance of intellect.—At this time the King of Poland ordered him to Lunéville, gave him the name of Bebé, and kept him in his palace.

Bebé thus exchanged the condition of a peaſant for the luxuries of a court; but he experienced no change either in his body or his mind. He had no ſenſe of religion; was incapable of reaſoning; could learn neither muſic or dancing; was ſuſceptible however of paſſions particularly anger, jealouſy, *et le deſir ardent.*—When ſixteen years old, he was only twenty-one inches in height; he was ſtill healthy and well proportioned; but at this time, *la puberté produiſit ſur les organes de la generation un trop grand effect*; his ſtrength began to decreaſe, the ſpine became crooked, the head fell forwards, the legs were enfeebled, one ſhoulder-blade projected, the noſe was greatly enlarged; Bebé loſt his gaiety, and became a valetudinarian; and yet his ſtature was increaſed four inches in the four ſucceeding years.—M. le Comte de Treſſan, foretold that this dwarf would die of old age before he was thirty; and in effect ſo it was, for at twenty-one, he was ſhrunk and decrepit; and at twenty-two, it was with difficulty he could make an hundred ſteps ſucceſſively.—In his twenty-third year, he was attacked with a ſlight fever, and fell into a kind of lethargy; he had ſome intervals, but ſpoke with great difficulty: For the five laſt days, his ideas ſeemed to be more clear than when he was in health. This diſeaſe ſoon proved fatal.—At the time of his death, he meaſured thirty-three inches.

New experiments concerning the putrefaction of the juices and humours of animal bodies. By M. Jean Baptiſte Gaber. Tranſlated from the Memoirs of the Academy of Turin.

THE great Lord Chancellor Bacon, who may be conſidered as the reſtorer of philoſophy, was well appriſed of the great advantages which medical and natural knowledge would derive from a judicious hiſtory of putrefaction founded upon experiment. I ſhall not, however, attempt ſuch a work in its utmoſt extent, nor even to furniſh materials for ſuch a work, with reſpect to all ſubjects, for fear my attention ſhould be too much divided among a great variety of facts to be properly employed upon any. I ſhall confine myſelf to the animal juices; and, indeed, my experiments have been made only on the moſt conſiderable of them, or ſuch, at leaſt, as appeared to me to be the moſt proper to throw light upon the internal cauſes of many diſeaſes, upon their effects or ſymptoms, and the indications of cure.

1. A man aged about fifty years, died of an inveterate jaundice without

out a fever; and his body having lain about 24 hours in a cold place in winter, was then opened. The large inteſtines were found infarcted with aſh-coloured excrements; and the ſmall ones contained here and there a kind of yellow mucus; the gall-bladder wat diſtended with a great exceſs of bile, nearly black. Some of this bile I received in a glaſs, from an aperture which I made in the veſicle, and found it not very fetid, but ſomething glewy and tenacious. I put a ſmall part of it into another veſſel, and poured upon it a drop or two of aqua-fortis: the mixture immediately efferveſced, and ſeveral air bubbles roſe to the ſurface, with a hiſſing which was audible when I brought my ear cloſe to the veſſel, and the mixture became ſenſibly warm.

2. I divided the remainder of the bile into three parts, which I placed in open glaſſes, where they were expoſed to different degrees of heat, which anſwered to the 35th, 25th, and 10th degrees of Reaumur's thermometer. At the end of twenty-four hours I mixed them with acids: the bile which had been placed in a degree of heat anſwering to 35, was moſt diluted, and gave very ſlight indications of efferveſcence; that which had ſtood in 25, was alſo diluted, and the acid produced a more ſenſible efferveſcence, but ſtill very ſlight; and the bile, which having been expoſed only to the temperament of the air, which might perhaps vary from ſeven to ten, preſerved its tenacity, and fermented as forcibly as in Experim. 1. This experiment was repeated a few hours afterwards, in the preſence of ſeveral eminent perſons, and the effect was the ſame.

3. Some blood which was taken from a vein of the dead body at the ſame time, appeared to be of a yellowiſh red. Some of this blood being immediately mixed with ſpirit of nitre, efferveſced, but much leſs than the bile. This mixture being left to digeſt for ſome hours, a yellow ſerum ſeparated from the blood, and covered its whole ſurface: this blood being ſubjected to the ſame heat as the bile, and for the ſame time in the ſtove, appeared more diſpoſed to efferveſcence than the bile; but this diſpoſition afterwards gradually diminiſhed.

4. From theſe experiments the following obſervations may be drawn.

1. That in diſeaſed bodies the humours may become ſo alkaleſcent as to efferveſce with acids; for it is not probable, that the humours, on which theſe experiments were made, efferveſced in conſequence of any alteration they had ſuffered after the body was dead; it having been kept only 24 hours in a cold place, and in cold weather, where the ſame humours taken from a healthy body would ſcarce have acquired ſuch a degree of alkaleſcence in many days.

2. That a very ſlight degree of putrefaction and fetor, which is not ſufficient to produce alkaleſcence out of the body, as appears by experiments related in the ſequel, will produce alkaleſcence in the body.

3. That alkali formed in the body, and contained in the bile, is extremely volatile, ſince a heat of 25 degrees made the greateſt part of it evaporate; and that the ſame

alkali

alkali contained in the blood, being a little more entangled with other elements, is, conſequently, leſs volatile; ſince the ſame degree of heat, continued for the ſame time, diſſipated but a very inconſiderable part of it.

4. This obſervation inclines me to ſuſpect, that, in other experiments upon putrefaction, in which ſome operators affirm, that they have ſeen indubitable proofs of the preſence of an alkali; and others ſay, they have ſcarce diſcovered any indications at all: the difference is the effect of different degrees of heat, the ſtaleneſs of the ſubſtance expoſed to the heat, or the different volatility of the alkali, ariſing from its coheſion with other principles.

6. The ſame experiments that I made upon morbid bile, I made alſo upon healthy bile, upon blood, and upon ſerum. I divided each of theſe liquors into three parts, which I ſeparately expoſed to the three different degrees of heat mentioned above; and having ſubmitted them ſeverally to the action of mineral acids, I found the bile moſt diſpoſed to efferveſce; and Baglivi has obſerved, that it corrupts ſooner than any other humour. I found that human bile was more diſpoſed to efferveſce than the bile of an ox; that corrupt blood ferments with acids ſtill ſlower, and that ſerum ferments ſlower than blood. In all theſe experiments, the efferveſcence was attended with the ſame phænomena that are related, (*Par.* 1.). Putreſcent humours not only efferveſce with mineral acids, but with very weak diſtilled vinegar. The ſeveral portions of theſe humours that have been expoſed to artificial heat, become fetid, and efferveſce ſooneſt, and ſooneſt arrive at the laſt ſtage of fermentation. When this happens, the fermentation ceaſes *, though the heat is continued; and the ſmell, which till then is intolerably fetid, becomes herbaceous, and is not diſagreeable †. The fetor manifeſts itſelf ſooner, and laſts longer, than the alkaleſcence.

6. To put the efferveſcence of putreſcent humours with mineral acids beyond a doubt, I muſt now obſerve, that the aqua-fortis which I uſed in my experiments was very weak, and ſuch as produced no motion in common water; and this efferveſcence is ſo far from being the effect of concentering the acids ‡, that, in my opinion, the acids may be ſo concentered as to render the efferveſcence leſs, principally becauſe the animal humours reſiſt efferveſcence, in proportion as they unite with acids ſpeedily and intimately; for when I made uſe of diſtilled vinegar, not ſtrong enough to coagulate the putreſcent humours, I obſerved that the efferveſcence was equally violent, and I have ſeen diſtilled vinegar ope-

* It has ſometimes happened, that ſerum, expoſed to an heat equal to 35, has not efferveſced; which gives cauſe to ſuſpect that the alkali contained in it diſſipates in proportion to the force and continuance of the heat.

† This always happens in the proceſs of vegetation. All putreſcent humours depoſited in a warm place ſoon become rancid, and contract a ſtrong ſmell, which, after a long time, reſembles that of amber.

‡ Which is the caſe with bile not in a putreſcent ſtate.

rate so powerfully upon a putrid serum, as wholly to convert it into froth.

7. When I was reading Dr. Pringle's experiments upon this subject, I observed that he sometimes exposed putrescent substances to an heat equal to the 100th degree of Farenheit's thermometer *, which is nearly the same with the 30th degree of Reaumur's.—Now, it is certain, that at this degree of heat, animal humours very soon become putrid; but then they lose as soon the alkalescence which they derive from putrefaction, if this degree of heat is continued; so that as the corrupting humours manifest their alkalescent quality for a very short time only, it might easily happen that no sign of alkalescence appeared in this experiment, if it was not made in the critical moment: I mean, if he examined the putrescent humours a little before the alkali was formed, or a little after it had evaporated. And supposing the experiment to have been critically made, still as the ambient heat would have caused the alkali to evaporate almost intirely as soon as it was formed, Dr. Pringle would have perceived very slight tokens of effervescence, though with a less degree of heat they would have been considerable: consequently, if that ingenious and accurate observer had made his experiments with a degree of heat just equal to that with which I made mine, the result, *cæteris paribus*, would have been the same.

8. I received some blood as it issued from the arm in a phial; and having dissolved it, or broken its texture, by continual agitation, I left it to putrify. I observed that its fine florid red colour insensibly faded to a blackish brown; but this change did not take place in the whole mass at the same time; it began at the surface, and gradually descended.

9. Blood in this state does not putrify so soon, nor so soon give signs of alkalescence, as the red part separated from the serum, because the serum putrifies more slowly than any other animal humour.

10. After having discovered, by the foregoing experiments, that the alkali flies off with a slight degree of heat, I was desirous to try if I could recover and retain it. I therefore put into an alembic of glass some serum which had separated from blood taken a few hours before from a feverish patient, and I placed it in a degree of heat between 25 and 28 of Reaumur's scale: I passed the neck of the alembic through a hole which was made for that purpose, in the wooden covering of the stove, that the head of it might be in the same temperament with the air of the chamber, which was equal to about the 10th degree of the same scale, and that the exhaling vapour might condense there into liquor: to the spout of the head of the alembic, I luted a bottle as a receiver, and at the end of every two days I had about two drachms of this distilled liquor, upon which I poured acids, with different effects. That part which came over first, had the smell and taste of serum; it was clear and transparent,

* The freezing point in Farenheit's is 32, the boiling 212. On Reaumur's the first is marked 0, the latter 80.

and

and did not effervesce either with acids or alkalies. The next portion was slightly fetid, but nearly of the same taste and transparency as the first; the third differed little from the second; but the fourth was extremely fetid, foul, opake, and of a pale colour; it did not, however, effervesce, but acids slightly tinged it with red; the fifth, which came over after the tenth day, and was clear, effervesced with acids, and produced a hissing which became sensible when the ear was brought close to the vessel; it also produced bubbles and froth: the sixth portion was equally limpid, but effervesced more slightly, and when I perceived that nothing more would come over with this degree of heat, I broke the alembic to examine the residuum: I found it a viscous crust, resembling wax, of a reddish colour, and extremely fetid, but the affusion of acids produced not the least signs of effervescence. This experiment, I thought, proved to demonstration, that alkali evaporates with a degree of heat from 25 to 28; that being collected in a receiver, it will effervesce, and that the residuum is a mass extremely fetid, wholly destitute of alkali, and, consequently, no effervescence is to be expected by pouring acids upon it.

11. Some blood which I kept in a glass vessel close stopped, retained its alkalescence a long time, though it was exposed to a degree of heat equal to 25; but upon unstopping the vessel, it flew off with great violence, in a vapour extremely fetid. The explosion was probably caused by the expansion of the air, in consequence of the putrefaction; and this experiment shews why the humours that are contained in the vessels of a human body, become alkalescent while they are yet scarce fetid, at the same time that drawn from the body, and kept in open vessels, they become fetid before they give signs of alkalescence. As soon as they begin to form alkali in the vessels, the alkali is retained, but as it exhales from a vessel exposed to the air, a greater quantity must be formed than exhales, before it can become sensible.

12. As serum subjected to the experiment in a sound state did not give up its alkali in less than ten days, it may be fairly inferred that it does not in less time become corrupt, it being certain, in the first place, that humours corrupt slowly in a closed vessel; and, in the second place, that of all humours, the serum continues longest uncorrupt.

I did not doubt, but that serum, already corrupt, would, in distillation, give up its alkali immediately, I therefore made the same experiments upon corrupt serum, that I had made upon sound: My principal view was to determine, exactly, the time when the alkali would begin to fly off, and after having collected the distilled liquor, to try whether it would change the blue vegetable colour of violets to a green, which the slowness of the preceding experiment had prevented me from attempting. I took for this purpose some blood in such a state of putrescence as to effervesce with acids, and having put it into a glass alembic, I exposed it to the same degree of heat with the same precautions and apparatus as in the preceding experiments. The first day I collected two drachms of the

diſtilled liquor, which I expoſed to the action of various acids, and a violent efferveſcence enſued: I then poured ſome of the ſame liquor upon ſyrup of violets, and it produced as fine a green as ſpirit of hartſhorn; this tincture having been changed to a red, by the affuſion of a few drops of aqua-fortis, became again blue, upon pouring into it ſome more of the diſtilled liquor. The liquor that diſtilled the five following days, gave the ſame indications of an alkali. As the diſtillation entirely ceaſed after this time, I broke the alembic, and found juſt ſuch a reſiduum as before, but under it there was a ſmall portion of liquor, reduced to the conſiſtence of ſyrup, which retained ſomewhat of an alkaline quality, but ſo weak, that having expoſed it about twelve hours in a window where the heat of the air was equal to about ten degrees of Reaumur's ſcale, the alkali totally diſappeared.

13. This efferveſcence, and power of changing ſyrup of violets green, proves that putreſcent humours form a true alkali, which exhales with a very ſlight heat. I would have made the experiment upon the ſyrup of violets with the putrid humours themſelves, but the opacity of the ſerum, the red colour of the blood, and the yellowneſs of the bile, would have rendered it doubtful.

14. As the reſiduum left in the alembic after diſtillation, though not alkaleſcent, is extremely fetid, it is evident that though the alkali may diſengage and exalt this fetor, and render it more penetrating, it is not the productive cauſe of it, becauſe the fetor remains when the alkali is departed.

15. But as both the alkaleſcence and fetor diſappear in the ſame degree of heat, if long continued (*Par.* 5.) it appears that this fetor is produced by the effluvia of parts extremely volatile, but different from volatile alkali, which, though ſooner produced, are more ſlowly diſſipated, ſince the fetor generally continues longer than the alkaleſcence. Alkaleſcence may, however, be ſometimes connected with a ſlight fetor; and, on the contrary, extreme fetor may ſubſiſt without alkaleſcence. This is a confirmation of the difference between the fetid and alkaline particles, which the ingenious Dr. Pringle has demonſtrated by another argument; he obſerves, that the exhalations of freſh urine are not pernicious, though they contain more alkali than any ſubſtance in a ſtate of putrefaction, the odour of which is pernicious in the higheſt degree. Putrid effluvia, therefore, are of a different nature from alkaline ſalt.

16. This being the fact, it follows that a volatile alkali is not a neceſſary product of putrefaction, and that the degree of alkaleſcence is not equal to that of putrefaction; but that, with reſpect to vegetable ſubſtances, neutral ſalts, if mixed with oil, become volatile by means of putreſcence, though in animal bodies alkali commences by the action of the bowels, where enveloped with other principles, it becomes perfect, or manifeſts itſelf by putrefaction; and that for this reaſon, putrefaction engenders a quantity of alkali more conſiderable in proportion as it finds in putreſcent bodies more ſalts, and other elements, capable, by mixing with ſalts, of communicating to them an alkaleſcent volatility. Upon the

the whole, if it is conſidered, 1ſt, That aceſcent plants, plants that yield an acid in diſtillation, yield very little of it when they are converted into blood or humours by the actions of the ſolids in an animal body; that they putrify almoſt immediately, and yield in diſtillation, inſtead of an acid, an alkali in a great quantity; 2dly, That an alkali is ſooner brought off by diſtillation from putrified ſubſtances than others. 3dly, That almoſt all ſalts are deſtroyed by the action of the bowels, and putreſcence, and that no alkali is found in the aſhes of bodies conſumed by fire; and, 4thly, That the humours which abound with ſalts, particularly the urine, afford the greateſt quantity of alkali, after putrefaction; I ſhall be juſtified in adopting the opinion of the chymiſts, who ſuppoſe that volatile ſalts owe their origin to other ſalts, which are thus changed, by the action of the bowels in animal bodies, by putrefaction, and by fire, and that, totally loſing their original form, they become alkalies. Upon this ſuppoſition it will be eaſy to conceive how volatile ſalts reſiſt putrefaction, as well as ſalts of other kinds, although putrefaction produces them. The quantity of alkaline ſalts produced by putrefaction, is indeed in proportion to the quantity of natural ſalts pre-exiſting in the putrefying ſubſtances; but as theſe ſalts are not ſufficient to prevent putrefaction, it is not ſurpriſing that the alkali which reſults, cannot arreſt its progreſs. If the natural ſalts had been ſtill more abundant, there is reaſon to think that they might have retarded its effects; for urine, which contains the greateſt quantity of ſalts, is leaſt ſubject to putrefaction; and when it is become putrid, its effluvia is leſs hurtful than the effluvia of any other humour, which can be attributed only to the abundance of the pre-exiſting ſalts, and the ſtrength of the alkali that is formed out of them.

17. The urine of a perſon in health will not become putrid in leſs than three days, ſo as to effervеſce with acids; but the urine of a perſon ſick of a putrid fever, will become ſo putrid as to produce that effect in four-and-twenty hours. The blood of a perſon ſo diſeaſed will alſo ſhew ſigns of alkaleſcence much ſooner than the blood of a perſon in a pleuriſy. Theſe particulars, however, belong to another claſs of experiments, which I reſerve till a future opportunity, and in which, after an examination of the morbific humours, and a compariſon of the phenomena which they exhibit, with each other, I ſhall endeavour to deduce ſuch conſequences as may facilitate the diſcovery of the cauſes of diſeaſes, explain their natures, and direct the method of cure.

Experiment on the heat that may be cauſed by the rays of the ſun reflected from the moon. By M. De la Hire, the ſon. From the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

IT is well known, that a great number of perſons attribute to the moon ſeveral qualities, without producing reaſons founded on good experiments. I ſhall not enter into a detail of thoſe qualities, having remarked, that moſt of thoſe

who attributed them to the moon were of different ſentiments. The quality, it ſeems, which might be attributed to her with moſt reaſon, is heat; becauſe her light is that of the ſun reflected, which ſhould cauſe heat, as all know. Yet as no experiment, that I know of, has been made to invalidate, or ſupport, the reaſons one might have to attribute this quality to her, I made the following, as exactly as I could, to know what ſhould be believed herein.

In the month of October laſt, the moon being in the day of her oppoſition, and the ſky very ſerene, I expoſed the burning mirror of thirty-five inches diameter, which is kept in the obſervatory, and towards the focus I laid the bowl of an air-thermometer of M. Amanton's, which is the moſt ſenſible we have; ſo that the bowl, which is of two inches diameter, received exactly, throughout its whole ſurface, all the rays that aſſembled in the focus; having examined the height of the mercury in the tube, after leaving it there for ſome time, I did not find it different from what it was before, though the rays were aſſembled in a ſpace 306 times leſs than their natural ſtate, and conſequently, ſhould have augmented the apparent heat of the moon 306 times.

It ſeems that if ſuch an experiment as this (wherein not only are aſſembled the rays of the moon in a ſpace 306 times leſs than their natural ſtate, but wherein alſo they are obliged to croſs each other as they aſſemble, which increaſes the effect of thoſe united rays, as is evident by expoſing the mirror to the ſun) ſhews no apparent heat, we ſhould believe, that it cannot make any impreſſion of ſenſible heat in our bodies.

On a ſingular bone, found in the lower belly. — From the hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1760.

A Bavarian ſoldier, who died at the age of 51, in the Military Hoſpital at Bruſſels, and who had ſerved 28, enjoyed a good ſtate of health till he was 50 years old; at that age he began to complain of a hardneſs in the belly, and to be ſubject from time to time to a retention of urine, which he could eaſe himſelf from by turning on the right ſide, and inclining a little on his belly. None knew what this ailment could be attributed to; but, having been opened after his death, occaſioned by an inflammatory diſeaſe, it afforded no ſmall aſtoniſhment to diſcover what had been the cauſe of it. In the pelvis was found a kind of bone weighing 20 ounces, which was lodged towards the right ſide, between the bladder and the os pubis. It was only connected with the meſentery, and had no adheſion with the neighbouring parts: it was incloſed by a very thin membrane faſtened to the meſentery by a thick and glandular body, having the form of a cone; the point of this cone was inſerted in a cavity at the upper part of the bone; having drawn upwards this faſtening which was more membraneous than cartilaginous, the bone followed without requiring to cut any thing, or even to make any effort: by the weight and poſition of the bone it appears, why the ſoldier eaſed himſelf of his retention of urine by placing himſelf

himſelf on his right ſide, and inclining a little forward.

A remarkable particular in this bone was, that it was marbled, and more heavy and hard than bones uſually are.

It would have been perhaps difficult to gueſs, that it was ſuch a cauſe that produced the ſenſation of hardneſs which this ſoldier had in his belly, and the retention of urine to which he was ſubject; and it would have been not leſs difficult to explain how this bone could have been formed: but it is always of great importance to collect facts of this kind; they exhibit to us the deviations of nature, and may ſerve ſkilful men for knowing a like caſe, and perhaps delivering the patient of his ailment, in ridding him, by a bold operation, of this foreign body.

The academy had this obſervation from M. Terence Brady, phyſician to his royal highneſs prince Charles of Lorrain, who ſent with it a drawing of the bone, wherein is ſeen the manner of its being marbled, which is ſomething very ſingular. It were to be wiſhed that this able phyſician had made a more accurate examination of this bony maſs, in order to ſee whether its ſubſtance was really of the ſame nature with that of bones; for there are ſubſtantial reaſons to doubt it is.

Account of a petrified beehive, diſcovered on the mountains of Siout in the Upper Egypt, by Mr. Lippi, licentiate in phyſic of the faculty of Paris.

M. LIPPI found, on thoſe mountains, at the entrance of a vaſt cavern, a body of real ſtone, of an irregular figure, but quite porous, which he had the curioſity to open. He was very much ſurpriſed to ſee the whole divided into oval cells of three lines in breadth, and four lines in length, placed all manner of ways about each other, but no where communicating, all of them lined with a very thin membrane, and what was more wonderful, each incloſing a maggot, or a fly perfectly like a bee. The maggots were very hard and very ſolid, and might paſs for petrified; but the flies were only dried up, and well preſerved as antient mummies; and ſmall oval grains, which appeared to be eggs, were often found under them. There was at the bottom of many of the cells a thick juice, blackiſh, very hard, appearing red when expoſed to the light, very ſweet, making the ſaliva yellow, and inflammable as reſin. It was, in ſhort, real honey; but who ſhould ever think of finding honey in the boſom of a ſtone?

M. Lippi conceives that this was a natural hive, which at firſt had been formed in a looſe, light, and ſandy earth, and afterwards was petrified by ſome particular accident. The animals that inhabited it, were ſurpriſed by the petrification, and, as it were, fixed in the ſtate they were then found. Their dried up mucoſity had formed the membrane that lined the cells. At the time when the hive was yet ſoft, the bees went out of it to ſeek their food, and make their honey in it.

Still ſeeking in the ſame place other particulars to clear up this fact, M. Lippi found, in ſeveral

parts, the beginnings of a like hive. It was, as it were, the firſt bed, formed of a number of little cells for the moſt part open, and containing the animal in all its different ſtates, but dried up and very hard as well as the hives. He ſaw beſides on one of the firſt beds a ſecond compoſed of a heap of little hillocks of about five lines in height, and an inch diameter at their baſe. They were grumelous, eaſily reducible into duſt, and nearly reſemble the hills thrown up by moles. M. Lippi opened them by ſtriking gently againſt them, and found in every one of them two or three oval cells, filled with a yellow maggot, and full of juice, which occupied them intirely.

It is eaſy to conceive that on a firſt bed once formed ſeveral others are alſo formed, which conſtitute the whole hive. But how are theſe beds formed? Whence comes the earth they are conſtructed of? Does the animal carry it thither; and how does he carry it, and in ſo great a quantity? This is not yet known; time alone can make us acquainted with this branch of knowledge.

An extract from Ambroſe Beurer's Diſſertation on the Oſteocolla.

THE ſtone oſteocolla has ſeveral names given it, but the moſt common is oſteocolla from the Greek word ὀστεον, bone, and Κόλλα, glue; it is alſo called lapis oſtites, olloſteus, oſſina, oſſifana, oſſifraga, lapis Aſiaticus, pierre de monti, lapis Morochius, flores arenæ, foſſile arboreſcens, lapis ſabilis, lapis arenoſus, [to which the author ſubjoins ten German names.]

The ancients were unacquainted with the nature of this ſtone; ſome ſuppoſing it to be petrified bones, others a ſpecies of gypſum or plaſter.

The oſteocolla grows in the dutchy of Croſſen, in Sileſia, Pomerania, Heſſe, Saxony, Poland, at Darmſtadt, Heidelberg, Spire, Pena in Mecklenburgh, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, near Beſkau, Sonneberg, and Droſſen. The ſoil in which it grows is always ſandy and barren, and the only trees under which it is found are poplars.

Kreuterman met with one repreſenting the figure of a houſe or caſtle, but it ſeems rather to have been a tophus than an oſteocolla. And Mercatus was certainly miſtaken, when he gave that name to petrifactions and calcareous tophuſes, Hermanus pronouncing theſe laſt to be rather bolaria or ciſti.

As to its production, it grows, as has been ſaid, in ſandy ground, ſome feet deep, and has the figure of a root. The largeſt can hardly be graſped with both hands, but they vary in ſize, like other roots.

The oſteocolla, while it remains under ground, is always ſoft like clay, and when rubbed with the hand, grows quite tallowiſh; but, when expoſed to the air, it hardens like chalk, and aſſumes the ſame colour. In its original ſtate it appears like a mixture of grey, yellow, and white clay, and ſand ſticks plentifully to its outſide; and it is with infinite labour and care that it can be taken up entire; for at firſt, a

ſmall

ſmall part only muſt be uncovered, cleanſed, and expoſed to the action of the air to harden; and then the part ſo managed, muſt be again carefully covered with boards to prevent the rain or moiſture coming to it, which will effectually defeat all endeavours to preſerve it; and this method of uncovering, cleanſing, and covering again, muſt be repeated till the whole is cleared and dried; which in variable ſeaſons will take up ſeveral months.

Authors differ in claſſing the oſteocolla among the vegetable or mineral ſubſtances. Moſt of the ancients, as has been already obſerved, have miſtaken it for bones that have undergone ſome accidental change; which others again deny, as no traces of animal parts have ever been diſcovered in it by chemical proceſſes; nor any fragments of bones been found near where it grows. Eraſmus has written the beſt upon it.

Thoſe who will not admit the oſteocolla among the animal, have ranged it among the mineral ſubſtances; in which they are certainly right. Profeſſor Teichmeyer indeed calls it a marle; but M. Henckel of the board of mines, claſſes it among the minerals, yet ſays nothing of its production. Profeſſor Junoker ſays, it is generated in the ſand, but he likewiſe leaves the manner undecided. My opinion is, that it is a root, to which the ſand adheres, and by degrees produces the oſteocolla; and I am the more confirmed in this opinion, as upon enquiry, I found near Terne, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, a withered twig, and a green ſhoot from a rotten ſtump, the uppermoſt part of which was wood ſtill, but the root or lowermoſt part was wholly transformed into pure oſteocolla; and this ſtump I had reaſon to believe was the remains of a tree which the people of the country call a ſpecies of poplar.

Its origin, therefore, is to be ſought for in the remains of the black poplar, the timber of which being firſt cut down, and the ſtem or ſtump rotted, the oſteocolla grows by degrees from the remaining root; for in all the parts of the oſteocolla, ſomething of woodineſs is diſcoverable, which, when thoroughly rotted, crumbles away and leaves thoſe innumerable perforations which give it the appearance of bone; and that it is peculiar to this tree may be preſumed from this, that though oſteocolla has been diligently ſought for in the roots of other trees growing on the ſame ground with the poplar in which it is found, yet nothing like it has ever been diſcovered. From all which, theſe concluſions, I think, may be fairly deduced.

I. That the ſoil in which it is found is not the efficient cauſe of its growth.

II. That wherever oſteocolla is found, there is or has been poplar.

III. That whoever finds oſteocolla will plainly perceive it has been a root. And,

IV. That wherever oſteocolla abounds, there will be ſeen a bony-like ſubſtance projecting from the ground, which has given riſe to the vulgar notion, that it grows and bloſſoms.

Be this however as it may, wherever theſe bony-like excreſcences appear by digging a ſpan

deeper, oſteocolla will certainly be found; and though the parts that are above ground be hard, thoſe underneath are always ſoft.

M. Beurer tried the oſteocolla in various menſtruums, to diſcover the quantity diſſolvable in each, and for this purpoſe infuſed half a dram of the oſteocolla in half an ounce of each menſtruum: The oil of vitriol diſſolved four grains of it; the ſolution was yellow; and the ſediment a cream colour. The ſpirit of vitriol reduced the whole to a ſalt. The ſpirit of nitre diſſolved one ſcruple and four grains of it; and the acid of common ſalt, one ſcruple and ſix grains; aqua fortis diſſolved one ſcruple and four grains, and diſtilled vinegar one ſcruple and a half.

By diſtillation on an open fire, the oſteocolla yields a urinous ſpirit; a fixed alkali being poured upon it, produces an immediate efferveſcence; the ſediment converted to a lixivium with pure water is quite taſteleſs, though oil of vitriol poured upon the oſteocolla in a retort over a gentle fire, will ſeparate from it an acid of common ſalt.

M. Beurer endeavoured to reduce part of the ſediment to a calx; but without effect.

Its uſe in medicine is abſorbent; and it is by ſome applied in the cure of the fluor albus.

An uncommon inſtance of a catalepſis (a kind of apoplexy) in a lady. From the laſt vol. of the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

A Lady about 45, came to Benſançon to ſolicit a law-ſuit of the laſt conſequence to her; ſhe went only among her lawyers, or to church, to endeavour to intereſt heaven in her cauſe; here ſhe was obſerved to proſtrate herſelf before every altar. She eat little, and ſlept leſs; tho' ſhe had been told, that the court ſeemed favourable to her cauſe, yet the evening before the day of hearing ſhe fell into what was believed to be an apoplexy. The phyſician and ſurgeon being called, found her ſitting motionleſs in a chair, with her eyes open and fixed upward; her arms raiſed, and hands joined, as one in an ecſtaſy; her countenance, which before was both pale and ſorrowful, was now both florid and gay; her breathing was free; her pulſe was like that of one aſleep, full, and ſlow; her limbs were ſupple, and would move as one would have them, without offering any reſiſtance, and would remain in what poſture they were left in; when her chin was pulled down, her mouth remained open; when her arms were raiſed they remained ſo; and let them be put into the moſt uneaſy poſture one could think of, they always remained in the ſituation they were put into; ſhe all this time ſeemed inſenſible; they tormented her ſeveral ways; put live coals to her feet; bawled into her ears that ſhe had gained her cauſe, ſhe gave no ſigns of life; Meſſrs. Attalin and Charles, both profeſſors of phyſic, had her blooded in the foot, and when they came to viſit her after ſupper, they found her recovered out of her cataleptic fit; which had held her three or four hours. She here entertained them with all the circumſtances of her law-ſuit, interſperſed with ſuch moral

moral reflections, as naturally aroſe from her ſtory; thoſe preſent did every thing to aſſure her ſhe would gain her cauſe; ſhe was aſked whether ſhe had any notion of what happened unto her: ſhe ſaid ſhe had ſeen nothing, but could diſtinguiſh the voice of ſome about her; yet ſhe never felt the chafing-diſh of coals under her feet, nor the bleeding in the foot; though ſhe had been tormented all manner of ways, yet ſhe never complained of any pain or laſſitude; while ſhe thus entertained the company, ſhe was obſerved to interrupt her diſcourſe, to draw a deep ſigh, and then her eyes became fixed; every thing was done to prevent thoſe little fits by reminding her where ſhe left off; but ſhe could never recover the thread of her diſcourſe, but would begin ſome other ſtory; in about an hour after ſhe fell into another cataleptic fit, which was as ſtrong as the firſt; after it was over, ſhe, ſitting in her chair, talked of her affairs as before, for an hour and a half good, and after this, ſhe began to ſpeak wildly, ſhe likewiſe ſcreamed frightfully, and was ſoon after ſeized with a violent fever. She was treated by the above phyſicians for three or four days: ſhe ſtill remaining at Beſançon, but without any viſible relief; whereupon they adviſed to have her carried back to Veſoul, her native place, where, to the ſurpriſe of every body, ſhe perfectly recovered, and is ſtill living.

A ſimilar caſe, ſtill more extraordinary, 1762.

A ſervant maid at Montpelier, about twenty, of a pale complexion, and ever complaining of cold in her extremities, of a timorous though fretful diſpoſition, after ſome grief ſhe took in March, was ſeized with a cataleptic fit; whatever attitude ſhe was in at the time of ſeizure, ſhe retained it till the fit was over. Theſe fits increaſing obliged her to be carried into the hoſpital, where ſhe was attended by Meſſrs. Sauvage and Lazerme: theſe fits were various as to their duration, being from half a quarter to three quarters of an hour; in the months of April and May, 1757, this catalepſy was accompanied with very extraordinary appearances, diſtinguiſhable into three viſible periods, the beginning and ending cataleptic, and middle, laſted a whole day, or from morning till night, when her cataleptic fit, which often uſed to hold her five or ſix minutes, was over, as was always known by her beginning to yawn, ſhe then ſat up in her bed, began to talk very faſt, and more ſenſibly than ſhe was known to do in her full health; ſhe would now often change her diſcourſe, and that pertinently enough, and appear as if ſhe directed her diſcourſe to ſome friends preſent; this was always obſerved to have ſome connexion with that ſhe held in a fit the day before, or it turned on ſome moral reflection, which ſhe ſhrewdly would apply to ſome of the attendants of the hoſpital. All this time her eyes were fully open, and yet ſhe was in a moſt profound ſleep, without either motion or feeling, as M. Sauvage confirmed by many experiments he made. 1ſt, By approaching the flame of a bougie, ſo near her eye as to burn her eyebrows;

brows; ſhe however did not even wink at this. 2dly, He got one to bawl loud into her ear, thump hard at the head of the bed, which at any other time would terrify her greatly; he beſides had ſome brandy and even ſpirit of ſal-ammoniac put into her eyes; he alſo thruſt his finger into them, had Havanna ſnuff blown into her noſe, pins thruſt into her fleſh, and her fingers twiſted, yet all to no purpoſe, ſhe never gave the leaſt ſign of feeling.

While theſe experiments were making, her diſcourſe (for ſhe all the time continued talking) all of a ſudden became more lively; this was a prelude to a new ſcene; ſhe now began to ſing and jump, and burſt out after into a fit of laughter, endeavouring at the ſame time to get out of bed, which ſhe at laſt effected with ſeemingly great joy; ſhe now ranged the whole ward, carefully avoiding the beds, chairs, &c. and returned without any difficulty to her own bed, lay down after, and covered herſelf, where in a ſhort time ſhe was ſeized with a cataleptic fit, which in leſs than one quarter of an hour left her; ſhe then awoke as out of a profound ſleep; upon ſeeing ſo many about her, ſhe appeared confuſed, and cried for the remainder of the day, though ſhe had no knowledge of what ſhe did in her fit.

About the end of May all the foregoing ſymptoms left her, tho' it could not be attributed to any effect from medicines She was blooded once in the arm, often in the foot, and ſeven times in the jugulars; ſhe was purged five or ſix times after ſome aperitive apozems ſhe took; ſhe took a ſtomachic electuary made of the bark, cinnabar, pulvis ad guttetam, and, when the weather was mild, ſhe was bathed twenty times in a bath rather cold than warm; ſhe had after ſome preparations of Mars ordered for her, was ſeemingly reſtored to her health, but ſhe was far from being ſo, having returns of her diſorder every winter, to 1759, with this difference, that it was not now preceded by a cataleptic fit, nor was her want of feeling ſo great. She was one day ſeized with a fit on the bridge, where ſhe was obſerved to ſpeak as to her own ſhadow or image ſhe ſaw in the water. At a fit ſhe had laſt Chriſtmas holy-days, ſhe had ſome notion of thoſe about her.

This young woman is now ſo accuſtomed to her diſorder, that all the concern it gives her is ſome little confuſion: however, ſhe is not of ſo pale a complexion; but ſhe ſtill feels the ſame heat and weight on her head, and on the decline of the fit complains of a cardialgia, which awakes her.

On a fiſh of the river of Surinam, which produces very ſingular effects. From the ſame.

WE daily diſcover new wonders in nature; and, if the fact we are going to give an account of, after M. Muſchenbroek, is exactly ſuch as it is related, it is one of the moſt extraordinary that occurs in the hiſtory of animals.

This able naturaliſt ſays, in a letter to the Abbé Nollet, that a fiſh or kind of eel is found in a river of Surinam, which has the ſingular property of ſtriking you,

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as the ſhock or commotion of Leyden, when you put your hands into the water near the place where it is. If, for inſtance, fiſhermen or ſeamen come near in a boat, within the diſtance of eight or ten feet, and dip their hands in the water, they immediately feel themſelves ſtruck, ſays M. Muſchenbroek, as in my experiment (it is the ſame as the commotion of Leyden) by the electricity of the fiſh; if they puſh it with a ſtick, they feel a ſmarter ſtroke; and if with an iron rod, they are ſtruck, as with a mighty force; in ſhort, no one dares to lay hold of it with the hand; and with an electrical ſhock it kills the fiſhes that in ſwimming paſs near it; yet, the moſt remarkable thing is, that if the ſeamen, inſtead of an iron rod, dip down by the ſide of the fiſh a ſtick of ſealing-wax, or even touch it with that ſtick, they feel no ſtroke; whence M. Muſchenbroek concludes, that, in the different circumſtances here related, the men are ſtruck by the electricity only of the fiſh.

Here are very ſingular effects, and there are others which are more extraordinary, ſince M. Muſchenbroek finiſhes his recital, by ſaying that ſome others are not leſs certain than the foregoing, but which he dares not give an account of.

None can be better diſpoſed than we are to adopt the opinions of ſo learned a gentleman; yet, in admitting all thoſe marvellous effects, we cannot believe, with him, that they ought to be attributed to electricity. It ſeems he was induced to think ſo after the experiment of the ſealing-wax; but it appears incompatible with the facts we knew of. It is indeed well known that every real electrical body, being made wet, tranſmits electricity as metals and other non-electrical ſubſtances. Thus the ſtick of ſealing-wax wetted ought to produce the ſame effect as the iron bar, &c. unleſs it be ſuppoſed that the ſmall part of this ſtick out of the water is enough to prevent it, which is not very probable. Beſides, a ſtick of wood, or iron rod, might tranſmit certain concuſſions, or certain motions, communicated by the fiſh to the parts of the water, which the ſealing-wax might not. Many things may be ſtill ſaid to ſhew that electricity has no ſhare in the ſingular effects attributed to this fiſh, and perhaps none of the facts do really exiſt. Let us not forget all the wonders that have been related of the torpedo. Though this fiſh is an inhabitant of our ſeas, and it was eaſy for every one to aſcertain what is ſaid of it, yet none before M. Reaumur, in our days, had ſhewn what all thoſe ſtories amounted to. There are two thouſand leagues from hence to Surinam; and what an alteration may ariſe in facts through the courſe of ſuch a paſſage! Yet all the above-related circumſtances give us reaſon to regret that one of thoſe ſingular fiſhes, which was bringing from that country to M. Muſchenbroek, died in the paſſage. If it had lived, this wiſe naturaliſt would have ſoon diſcovered and made known all the certainty in the facts related of it.

The fiſh here ſpoken of is called by naturaliſts gymnotus, and by the

the Dutch, Beef-aal, in French Anguille de bœuf, i. e. Beef-eel: It is four feet in length, and nearly about the thickneſs of a man's arm; and it is found particularly in places where there are rocks.

M. Richer ſpeaks, in the account of his voyage to Cayenne, of a fiſh that ſeems quite like this in bigneſs and its effects: He ſays that when it is touched with the finger, or even with a ſtick, it ſo benumbs the arm, and the part of the body neareſt to it, that one remains for a quarter of an hour without being able to ſtir it; that himſelf had felt this effect; and he adds, that the fiſhermen ſay, that by ſtriking other fiſhes with its tail, it ſets them aſleep: This is not unlike what M. Muſchenbroek relates of the gymnotus, but it is much leſs extraordinary.

Of different bones which have been diſcovered within a rock near Aix. From the ſame.

WE cannot be too reſerved in points of natural hiſtory, when we are to decide concerning the reſemblance between ſome foſſil bodies and others primitively organized, eſpecially if theſe are of ſo delicate a ſubſtance, as to make it rare, after a certain time, to find them well preſerved, or at leaſt to diſcover the parts that have not undergone notable alterations.

When one in fact has believed there is found ſome deciſive relation in thoſe ſorts of reſearches, all the obſervations come to terminate in the idea firſt conceived; ſo that the obſervation of whatever does not agree therewith is only attended to, far from finding a reaſon to bring things to a cloſer examination, and to return to the firſt impreſſions received.

The ſeveral bones diſcovered near Aix, and which at firſt ſight have been held to be human bones, confirm what we ſay, and prove how much, in comparing one body with another, it is neceſſary to know perfectly what is moſt proper to characterize them.

Springs of mineral waters are very near the place which theſe bones were taken out of; ſeveral chains of mountains ſeparate it from the ſea, which is five leagues diſtant from it. A rock, which is there level with the ſurface of the ground, was ſapped by gunpowder; it formed a very hard maſs, and no ſtrata were obſervable in it; the part of this rock which lay buried in the earth to a certain depth, was covered with a bed of clay, over which was vegetable earth: the interior of the rock was of the nature of the hardeſt marble, and mingled with jaſpered and tranſparent veins. It was after penetrating into it five feet in depth, that a great quantity of bones were diſcovered to be lodged in it: They were held as having belonged to different parts of the human body; jaw-bones, teeth, arm and thigh bones, all were conſidered as ſuch: they had not, in appearance, changed their nature; their cavity was filled with a cryſtalline ſubſtance, or a ſtony matter like to that which incloſed them.

At the depth of four feet and a half, were diſcovered bodies of a pretty regular figure, and reſembling human heads; the occiputs

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of ſome of them have been preſerved: they were incruſtated in the ſtone, and their internal part was full of it: the face of one of thoſe heads was preſerved without alteration; it is in the natural proportions; the eyes, the noſe well formed, though flatted, the cheeks, the mouth, the chin, are therein diſtinguiſhed, and the muſcles of the whole very well articulated: this head is of the ſame ſubſtance with the ſtone it was taken out of.

In the ſame place was found a great number of pointed teeth, whoſe analogies are unknown; one in particular was remarked which was round, much bent, and ſharp as that of fiſhes; it was not intire, but it was judged from its remains that its length might have been three inches; its enamel was of the fineſt poliſh: ſome other teeth were alſo diſcovered, which were of a greater or ſmaller dimenſion than that here mentioned, and whoſe interior ſubſtance bore a great likeneſs to that of the teeth of fiſhes.

There was likewiſe obſerved, on the ſurface of a fragment of the ſtone, a kind of ſquare horn, ſomewhat bent, and laid horizontally; it was covered with a ſubſtance reſembling that of harts horns; the remains of it is three inches in length; and three longitudinal canals make it ſuſpected that it belonged to ſome fiſh.

The quarry, out of which theſe bones were taken, is ſituated on a riſing ground, where neither ſprings, nor rivulets, nor waters, are ſeen to filtrate into it: and though, in digging into the earth about, ſeveral broken bricks and the remains of houſes are found, yet none of thoſe veſtiges are perceived in the quarry itſelf; which gives room to preſume that it was never opened by the firſt Romans who eſtabliſhed themſelves in the environs of Aix; and thoſe bones are of a date greatly anterior to them.

M. Guettard, among ſome other of our academicians, is not diſpoſed to believe that the greater part of thoſe bones have the origin that is attributed to them; and that the heads, eſpecially, have belonged to human bodies. How, indeed, can it be conceived, that the fleſh and muſcles of thoſe heads have been preſerved in ſuch perfection that a maſk of ſtone ſhould mould itſelf over them with regularity, and catch exactly the delicate features of the face? A ſtony juice ſhould, in conſequence of this idea, have bedewed thoſe well-formed maſks, and, after being indurated thereon, ſhould have given in relief the figure of the heads on which the maſks had been at firſt moulded. Beſides, it is ſeen, by the account, that the quarry is formed of ruins; that all things are there heaped upon one another without order; and that the ſediments of ſtony matter being performed by ſucceſſion, it ſhould be likewiſe ſuppoſed, that thoſe heads were preſerved without alteration during a conſiderable time, to ſerve as a nucleus to the matter which had incloſed them. M. Guettard's opinion, in refuſing to hold as human bones thoſe of the quarry of Aix, ſeems alſo the better grounded, from the diſcovering of ſeveral teeth of ſea-fiſhes; it being very probable, that whatever has been taken for human heads is only the produce of a ſtony

a ſtony ſubſtance, which had taken its regular form from ſome heads of fiſhes. Teeth like thoſe of the environs of Aix have been found at Dax; and they were ſtill fixed in a jaw-bone which is preſerved in M. de Reaumur's cabinet of natural hiſtory, and which could belong only to ſome large ſea-fiſh. M. Guettard has beſides obſerved, that the ſtones mixed with the bones of the quarry of Aix are filled with gravel and roundiſh pebbles, which indicate ſediments formed by the ſea: the greater part alſo of the bones, which have been taken for arms and legs, ſeems to be portions of the ribs of fiſhes.

M. Guettard does not deny but that human bones may be found incloſed in ſtone; but he pretends that, when this happens, the place they are in retains the marks of earth that has been ſtirred or worked, and ſhews, by ſome veſtiges, that men had dwelt there. It appears on the contrary, according to the deſcription made of the quarry of Aix, that it is ſtill in its primitive ſtate, and belongs to old nature: the gravel and pebbles found there are like thoſe thrown up by the ſea; and it is very probable, that the bones it contains have their origin from fiſhes; whatever relation might have been obſerved between them and human bones.

Obſervation on cures performed by burning. Extracted from the acts of the academy of Upſal in Sweden.

THERE have been violent pains and aches of the head, whoſe cure has been ſudden and unforeſeen. A lady thirty-five years old, and of a good conſtitution, had continual pains, with exacerbations, which ſeized her once regularly in eight or ten days; and laſted ten or twelve hours with ſo much violence, that ſhe was ſometimes as ſenſeleſs, and ſometimes as mad. The ſeat of the pain was principally in the forehead, and in the eyes which then became very red and ſparkling. The great fits were accompanied by nauſeas, and always ended by vomiting a quantity of a white, ſlimy, frothy, and inſipid matter, and a green and very bitter water which did not come till laſt. While theſe fits continued, ſhe could take no nouriſhment; when they ceaſed, ſhe had a good appetite, and no waſte of fleſh was viſible, notwithſtanding the long duration of ſo diſtreſſed a condition.

Her phyſicians to no purpoſe adminiſtered all ſorts of remedies to her for three years together. Opium alone ſuſpended for ſome hours the ordinary pains of her head, but had no effect upon the exacerbations.

One evening perceiving the approach of a fit, and going to bed, ſhe had a mind firſt to examine if her eyes were very red. She beheld herſelf in a little pocket looking-glaſs, and the fire of a wax taper, which ſtood near her, catched her night-cap, which was of thick cloth. At firſt ſhe did not perceive it, and ſhe chanced to be alone. The fire burnt all her forehead, and a part of the crown of her head, before ſhe could make any one come to extinguiſh it. Her phyſician, who was ſent for, had her let blood immediately, and he treated the burn according

to the common method, the pain of which ceaſed in a few hours. But the great fit that was expected did not come; even the ordinary head-ach diſappeared almoſt that moment without the help of any other remedy than burning; and now, theſe four years ſince this happy accident fell out, the lady has enjoyed perfect health.

Another good effect of accidental burning appears from the following caſe: A woman, who for ſeveral years paſt had her legs and thighs ſwelled, in an extraordinary manner and very painful, found relief in rubbing them before the fire with brandy every morning and evening. One evening the fire chanced to catch the brandy ſhe had rubbed herſelf with, and ſlightly burned her. She applied ſome unguent to her burn, and in the night all the water her legs and thighs were ſwelled with was intirely diſcharged by urine, and the ſwelling did not return. It is a pity that chance does not oftener act the phyſician.

It has undoubtedly taught ſeveral barbarous people this ſort of remedy who ſucceſsfully practiſe it, and perhaps the more voluntarily from being more cruel, as it gives them an opportunity of ſhewing their courage. M. Homberg, the French academician, who was born in the iſland of Java, relates, that, when the Javans have a certain cholic, or a looſeneſs attended with pain, which is generally mortal, they cure themſelves of it by burning the ſoles of their feet with a hot iron. If they have a whitlow on the finger, they dip it ſeveral times into boiling water, an inſtant each time; and M. Homberg himſelf, to follow in ſome meaſure the cuſtoms of his country, cured himſelf of a whitlow in this manner. We find, in the relations of travellers, ſeveral other diſtempers, which the ſavages cure by burning; and without going ſo far ourſelves, on ſeveral occaſions we apply this remedy to horſes, hounds, birds of prey, &c. but it is true our delicacy does not permit us to make uſe of it for ourſelves, and it perhaps makes us prefer longer pains to ſhorter. It has not likewiſe ſuffered our long uſe in Europe of the Chineſe moxa, or down, brought alſo by the Spaniards from America, and which cured the gout when burnt on the afflicted part. A recent inſtance has appeared in a burgher of Hamburgh, who by this remedy in ſeven or eight days was freed from his fits of the gout, which before laſted two or three months, and at the ſame time it made them more unfrequent.

In ſhort, it may be ſuppoſed with good reaſon, that burning may cure three different ways; by putting the noxious humours in a great motion, which makes them turn into new channels; or by making them fluid from a ſtate of viſcidity, which comes to the ſame; or by deſtroying a part of the ducts that conveyed them in too great abundance.

ANTIQUITIES.

A Letter from Edward Wortley Montague, Esq; F. R. S. to William Watson, M. D. F. R. S. containing an account of his journey from Cairo, in Egypt, to the written mountains in the desert of Sinai. Received January the 3d; and read before the Royal Society, March 13, 1766.

IT is with a good deal of difficulty that I have prevailed upon myself to write to you, for, as coming now to Italy was quite unforeseen, and I am immediately going back to the east, I have not my journal with me, but luckily have the famous inscriptions. I am sensible every paper I send to the royal society exposes more and more my incapacity. However, as these inscriptions are much wanted, I cannot avoid sending them. I shall only speak to some of the points the bishop of Clogher mentions; but cannot avoid being now and then a little prolix.

I set out from Cairo by the road known by the name of Tauriche Beni Israel, road of the children of Israel. After twenty hours travelling, at about three miles an hour, we passed, by an opening in the mountains on our right hand, the mountains Maxattee. There are two more roads; one to the northward of this, which the Mecca pilgrims go; and one to the south, between the mountains, but never travelled (as it does not lead to Suez, to which it is thirty hours march from Cairo). Through this breach the children of Israel are said to have entered the mountains, and not to have taken the most southern road, which I think most probable: for those valleys, to judge by what one now sees, could not be passable for Pharaoh's chariots. This breach, the inhabitants told me, leads directly to a plain called Badeah, which in Arabic signifies something new and extraordinary, and also the beginning, as the beginning of every thing is new, i. e. was not before known.

At Suez I found an opportunity of going to Tor by sea, which I gladly embraced, that, by going nearer the place, at which the Israelites are supposed to have entered the gulf, and having a view from the sea, as well of that as of the opposite shore, I might be a little better able to form a judgment about it. Besides, I was willing to have the views, bearings, and soundings, which I took, and they will appear some time or other; but this paper would scarce be their place, if I had them with me.

When we were opposite to Badeah, it seemed to me (for I was not on shore) a plain, capable of containing the Israelites, with a small elevation in the middle of it. I saw something too like ruins.

The

The captain and pilots told me, that this was the place where the Iſraelites entered the ſea, and the ruins were thoſe of a convent (I ſuppoſe built on the ſpot in commemoration of the fact); they added that there was good water there. There is here a ſtrong current, which ſets to the oppoſite ſhore, about ſouth eaſt; it forms by its ſtrength a whirlpool, where ſailors ſaid ſhips were loſt, if forced into it, for want of wind, by the current. This pool is about ſix miles northward of Cape Karondel; and juſt below this pool there is a ſand, a flat iſland at low water, which runs eaſt and weſt about three miles. This ſand, I ſuppoſe, is thrown up by the force of the current; and the ſame current, by the reſiſtance it meets with from this bank, being forced back into the cavity made by this excavation, forms the whirlpool. This pool is called Birque Pharaone, the well or pool of Pharaoh; and here they affirm his hoſt was deſtroyed. I ſhall ſay more of this as I travel back by land. We came to an anchor in fifteen fathom water, within a mile and a half of the ſhore, to the ſouthward of this ſand, and in the Birque Karondel, to the northward of the cape; here the eaſtern ſhore is already mountainous, which, near this place, was a ſandy beach: the Egyptian ſhore, from Suez to Badeah, is likewiſe rocky and ſteep; ſo no entering upon the gulf from that ſhore, but at Badeah or Suez.

It is high water always when the moon is at her meridian height, and it ebbs ſix hours. At Suez, it flows ſix feet; the ſpring tides are nine, and in the variable months, from the beginning of November to the end of April, ſometimes twelve. From the beginning of May to the beginning of October, a northerly wind generally riſes and goes down with the ſun; it is often very ſtrong. This wind never fails in theſe months, unleſs there be ſome violent ſtorm; the reſt of the year the winds are variable, and when they blow hard at S. and S. S. E. theſe winds ſet up the ſea through the narrow ſtreight of Babel Mandel, and up this gulf through its mouth, between Gebel El Zait, on the weſt ſide of this ſea, and the ſouthermoſt point of the bay of Tor, on the eaſt ſide of this weſtern branch of this ſea, where it is not above twelve or fourteen miles over. I ſuppoſe ſuch a wind, hindering the water from going out, cauſes this extraordinary encreaſe in the ſpring tides. We ſee the ſame thing happen with the ſame winds at Venice, both gulfs running nearly in the ſame direction.

The Egyptian, weſtern, or Thebaic ſhore, from Badeah ſouthward, to oppoſite Tor, on the eaſtern ſhore, is all mountainous and ſteep; and at Elim, the northermoſt point of the bay of Tor ends the ridge of mountains, which begin on the eaſtern ſhore of this weſtern branch at Karondel. I ſay nothing of Elm, or Tor, or the marine productions of this gulf, as this paper is intended to give an account of Sharme, Meenah El Dzahab, Kadeſh Barnea, the ſtone which Moſes ſtruck twice, and the inſcriptions. I, however, muſt ſay, that, from this place, mount Sinai, properly called, cannot be ſeen; but only the ridge or group of mountains, in which it is, and

which altogether form that part of this tongue of land called in general mount Sinai. The garden of the monks of mount Sinai at Elim renders in dates, &c. 20,000 piaſtres per ann. or £. 2,500.

We from thence croſſed the plain, in about eight hours, and entered the mountains of Sinai. They are of granite of different colours. At the entrance of the narrow breach, through which we paſſed, I ſaw, on a large looſe granite ſtone, an inſcription in unknown characters, given, I think, by Dr. Pocock, biſhop of Oſſory; however, as the Iſraelites had no writing, that we know of, when they paſſed here, I did not think it of conſequence enough to ſtop for; the Arabs told me, it was relative to a battle fought here between Arabs; and indeed I do not ſee what point of hiſtory it can illuſtrate; beſides, there are not above five or ſix words. We arrived at the convent of Mount Sinai, after the uſual difficulties mentioned by other travellers, were received as uſual, and ſaw the uſual places, of which, however, I ſhall give the plans as well as elevations, which I took. I muſt ſay, that the monks were far from owning to me, that they had ever meddled with the print of the foot of Mahomet's camel. I examined it narrowly, and no chiſſel has abſolutely ever touched it, for the coat of the granite is entire and unbroke in every part; and every body knows, that if the coat of leſs hard ſtones than granite is once deſtroyed, it never returns. It is a moſt curious luſus naturæ, and the Mahometans turn it to their uſe.

Meribah is indeed ſurpriſingly ſtriking. I examined the lips of its mouths, and found that no chiſſel had ever worked there; the channel is plainly worn by only the courſe of water, and the bare inſpection of it is ſufficient to convince any one it is not the work of man. Amongſt the innumerable cracks in rocks, which I have ſeen in this, as well as other parts of the world, I never met with any like this, except that at Jeruſalem, and the two which are in the rock Moſes ſtruck twice, of which hereafter.

I had enquired of the captain and the two pilots of our ſhip, about Sharme and Dzahab, on the weſtern ſhore of the eaſtern branch of the Red-ſea; they told me that they were often forced up the Elanitic gulf, the eaſtern branch of the Red-ſea, and generally went to Sharme, and ſometimes as high as Dzahab; that they generally ran from Cape Mahomet, the ſouthermoſt part of the peninſula between thoſe two gulfs, to Sharme, in ſix hours, becauſe they always made as much more way, as they commonly do, they very ſeldom going there but in a ſtorm: They generally run four knots, ſo this makes forty-eight miles, which brings it to the northward of Tor. Tor is in lat. 27. 55. Cape Mahomet thirty miles ſouthward, lat. 27. 25. Sharme forty-eight miles nearly N. lat. 28. 13. conſequently about E. N. of Sinai. The port is pretty large, ſurrounded with high mountains, the entrance very narrow, and the water deep quite to the rocks, which are ſo very ſteep, that a ſtone dropt from the ſummit falls into the baſon. No wind can be felt here; they don't caſt anchor, but faſten their cables

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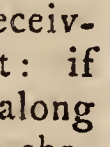
to the rocks. There is good water; ſome habitations are found on the ſides of the mountains, and a pretty large village at top: This ſeems to anſwer the idea of Neſt-Ken. Dzahab lies as high again up the gulf, ſo forty-eight miles more, or in lat. 29. This port is conſiderably larger than the former, and very good, but not ſo cloſely ſurrounded with mountains; it is, however, very ſafe. There is a well of great antiquity with very good water; very conſiderable ruins are found, and they ſay, there was a great city formerly; but no inhabitants now, except an Arabian camp of 2000 men. There is a road from it to Jeruſalem, formerly much frequented. Thus far the captain and pilots. I enquired from the monks, as well as Arabs, about theſe places, as well as about the ruins, ſuppoſed by my learned friend, the biſhop of Oſſory, to be Kadeſh Barnea: the former could only tell me, they had not received any fiſh from thence in many years, that it was two eaſy days journey off, but the road was mountainous; ſo one may ſuppoſe the diſtance leſs than forty miles. The Arabs agreed as to the road; but they ſaid, it was once a large place, where their prince lived, whoſe daughter Moſes married, that Moſes was afterwards their prince, and the greateſt of all prophets. Theſe Arabs place Moſes the firſt, Solomon the ſecond, Mahomet the third, Chriſt the fourth, and then the prophets of the Bible. As to Dzahab, the monks only knew the diſtance to be four days journey, and that there was a road from it to Jeruſalem: The Arabs told me the ſame, ſo the diſtance is about eighty miles. I enquired of them all about the ruins; they told me there were conſiderable ones about half way to Dzahab, about forty miles from Sinai; but I ſhould think Kadeſh muſt have been much nearer to Jeruſalem. I would willingly have gone to theſe places; but as the four clans of Arabs, which inhabit this promontory, were then at war one with the other, I could get no conductor. In another journey I hope to be more lucky, for this is all hearſay; however, combining the whole together, and comparing it with what we collect from ſcripture, I think we may well conclude, Sharme to be Midian, and Meenah El Dzahab to be Exiongeber: what the interjacent ruins are I cannot conjecture; but I believe I have found Kadeſh Barnea to be elſewhere. I think it cannot be here, for the Iſraelites were on the borders of the Holy Land, or Land of Promiſe, when they were ordered back; and when they were ſtopped by the Moabites, they are ſaid to have been brought up from Kadeſh Barnea; and I meet with no place in ſacred writing, or any antient geographer, neither Strabo nor any other, that draw the line of diviſion between this promontory and the Land of Promiſe ſo low down; nor could they do it, as theſe ruins are within almoſt ſeventy miles of the extremity of it. There are two roads from Mount Sinai to Jeruſalem, the one through Pharan, the other by the way of Dzahab: That through Pharan is eleven days journey: two to Pharan: three to a ſtation of the Mecca pilgrims called Scheich Ali, one and an half to

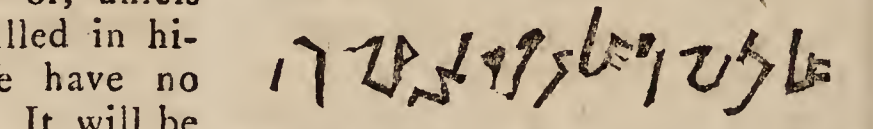
ſome conſiderable ruins; all this to the northward: from thence four and ſomething more to Jeruſalem, by way of Hebron, leaving the Aſphaltic lake on the right hand to the ſouth-eaſtward. The other way is longer, on account of the road being more mountainous; that too paſſes the ſame ruins, and alſo Scheich Ali. I enquired about this when I was at Jeruſalem, and received the very ſame account, with this addition, that ſuch Mahometans, as went from Jeruſalem to Mecca, went that way, to join the Cairo caravan at Scheich Ali. This ſeems to be a ſituation oppoſite to Kadeſh Barnea; at the line drawn by all the geographers; it is without Mount Sinai (taken for this whole tract); and juſt before the Moabites, as the children of Iſrael paſſed by Mount Hor, now Acaba, leaving the Aſphaltic lake on their left hand, to the north-weſt. The tradition too of the Arabs is, that they paſſed this way; therefore, I think, Kadeſh Barnea muſt be near this ſpot. There are here conſiderable ruins; and I know of no city that ever was here, for Petra lay more to the eaſt, between the Aſphaltic lake and the Elanitic gulf. To leave no enquiry wanting, I aſked the Rabbins of Jeruſalem, where they placed Kadeſh Barnea; and they ſaid, theſe ruins.

We ſet out from Mount Sinai by the way of Scheich Salem; and, after we had paſſed Mahomet's ſtone, came to the beautiful valley, mentioned in the journal. I lay there (and hope I have diſcovered the manna, but that will be the ſubject of another paper) and did not ſet out before day-light, that I might not paſs the rock which Moſes ſtruck twice. I ſearched, and enquired of my Arabs, but could neither hear nor ſee any thing of it. I ſaw ſeveral ſhort inſcriptions ſtained on ſome parts of the mountains, the characters being the ſame with thoſe on Mount Sinai, Meribah, &c. given by the biſhop of Oſſory. About four miles before we arrived at Pharan, we paſſed through a remarkable breach in a rock; each ſide of it is perpendicular as a wall, about eighty feet high, and the breach is about forty broad. It is at this breach, I imagine, the Horites were ſmote, four miles beyond the preſent ruins of Pharan; for having paſſed this breach they could make a ſtand, nor could they well be purſued. Here, on the tops of the mountains to our right hand, were ruins of buildings, and one ſeemed a caſtle. From Meribah to near this place, we had always rather deſcended; in moſt places there is the bed of a ſtream, and after rain the water runs; but a little before we came to this breach, it winded off towards the weſt, for the waters fall into that part of the deſert we croſſed from Tor. Between this breach and Pharan, there are ſeveral ſprings, and one at Pharan where we encamped; there is the bed of the river mentioned by the journal, the traditional account of which agrees with what is ſaid by St. Paul. Waters ſeem to have run from Meribah to within about ſix miles of this place; the bed of a ſtream is here again very plain and a ſpring at the upper end of it, which does not yield water enough to make a ſtream, the bed then is dry; four valleys terminate here, and form a large area. I enquired about

about the road to Jeruſalem; the people agreed in the diſtance and ruins. We travelled in the bed of the river through the valley to the north; and in about half an hour, the ſight and appearance of a large ſtone, not unlike Meribah, which lay at ſome diſtance from the mountain on our right hand, ſtruck me; and I alſo obſerved, it had many ſmall ſtones upon it. The Arabs, when they have any ſtone or ſpot in veneration, as Mahomet's ſtone, and the like, after their devotion, lay ſome ſmooth ſtone upon it. I aſked what it was; they told me Hagar Mouſa, the ſtone of Moſes. I told them that could not be, for that lay in Rephidim; they ſaid that was true, but this was Hagar il Chotatain, the ſtone of the two ſtrokes; that he ſtruck it twice, and more water came from it than from Meribah; witneſs the river. The bed of the river winds to the eaſtward, about E. S. E. I aſked how far it went; they ſaid this bed ran by Scheich Ali to thoſe ruins, and quite away to the ſea; ſo the river muſt have begun here, and not at Pharan, and the bed from Pharan here is only formed (I ſuppoſe) by winter torrents. If this is the bed of the river mentioned by St. Paul, as I dare ſay it is, we have the ſecond rock: if it runs to the ruins, as is ſaid, and there is no reaſon to doubt it, they will be pretty plainly thoſe of Kadeſh Barnea; and if this bed continues in the ſame courſe to the ſea; as it probably does, this probably is the river at Rinocolura, ſuppoſed by Eratoſthenes, to be formed by the Arabian lakes; becauſe he did not know its miraculous head. This river is doubted of by Strabo, becauſe dried up to the ſource, from the time the Iſraelites entered the Land of Promiſe, and the tradition was then loſt. You may ſee Strabo's Aſſyria, edit. Caſaubon, p. 5. 10. towards the bottom. Pardon this bold conjecture; but it coincides and conciliates ſacred hiſtory with antient geography. This too ſeems a proof, that this is really the ſecond ſtruck rock. As to the ſprings between the breach and Pharan, they certainly did not exiſt in the time of Moſes; or, if they did, they would have been as nothing to ſo many people.

We went down a large valley to the weſt towards the ſea, and paſſed the head of a valley, a part of the deſert of Sin, which ſeparates the mountains of Pharan from thoſe which run along the coaſt, and the ſame plain which we had paſſed from Tor. We had ſcarce entered theſe mountains, and travelled an hour, when after paſſing a mountain, where there were viſible marks of an extinguiſhed ſubterraneous fire, we ſaw, on our left hand, a ſmall rock, with ſome unknown characters cut on it, not ſtained upon it, as thoſe hitherto met with; and in ten minutes, we entered a valley ſix miles broad, running nearly north and ſouth, with all the rocks which encloſe it on the weſt ſide, covered with characters. Theſe are what are called Gebel El Macaatab, the written mountains. On examining theſe characters, I was greatly diſappointed, in finding them every where interſperſed with figures of men and beaſts, which convinced me they were not written

by the Iſraelites; for if they had been after the publication of the law, Moſes would not have permitted them to engrave images, ſo immediately after he had received the ſecond commandment: if they went this way, and not along the coaſt, they had then no characters, that we know of, unleſs ſome of them were ſkilled in hieroglyphics, and theſe have no connexion with them. It will be difficult to gueſs what theſe inſcriptions are; and, I fear, if ever it is diſcovered, they will be ſcarce worth the pains. If conjecture be permitted, I will give my very weak thoughts. They cannot have been written by Iſraelites, or Mahometans, for the above reaſon; and if by Mahometans, they would have ſome reſemblance to ſome ſort of uphic characters, which were the characters uſed in the Arabic language, before the introduction of the preſent Arabic letters. The firſt MSS. of the alcoran were in Cuphic; there is a very fine one at Cairo, which I could not purchaſe, for it is in the principal moſque; and the Iman would not ſteal it for me, under four hundred ſequins, £200 Theſe have not the leaſt reſemblance to them: Saracen characters are very unlike; beſides, I ſhould place them higher than the Hegira. I think it then not unprobable that they were written in the firſt ages of chriſtianity, and perhaps the very firſt; when, I ſuppoſe, pilgrimages from Jeruſalem to Mount Sinai were faſhionable, conſequently frequent and numerous, by the new Chriſtian Jews, who believed in Chriſt; therefore, I ſhould believe them Hebrew characters, uſed vulgarly by the Jews about the time of Chriſt. I ſhewed them when at Jeruſalem to the rabbins; they were of the ſame opinion, and thought  , which is frequent, was שלם; and to that



which is juſt before with a ſmall croſs שלב שך ושוע, by changing the *ſhin* into *ſin*, and adding *je*, it might be an Arabic word سلاسون a croſs, and might be explained, the croſs borne or carried by Jeſus. The Hebrew would be Jeſus brought ſafety, or ſalvation. But, Sir, more able than me will judge better. Theſe are all conjectures; and it ſeems much eaſier to ſay what theſe inſcriptions are not, than what they are. They can ſcarce be of St. Helen's time; for they would have ſome analogy with Greek characters, and they have none. Perhaps ſome gentlemen will think them ancient Egyptian, written by the colony which they ſuppoſe went to inhabit China. That is a matter I won't meddle with; but amongſt many others, it will be liable to one great objection, which is, that ſuch colony, if there ever was one, probably went the ſtreight road, from the head of one gulf to the head of the other, from Hierapolis to Eloth, the way the Mecca pilgrims now go. This place would have been far out of their way, being at leaſt ſixty miles to the ſouthward of the pilgrims road, unleſs they were ſuppoſed to have had

had tranſports at Dzahab, or Sharme. I, for the firſt reaſon given, did not think them written by the Iſraelites, and could not conceive that they were of any great conſequence. I only took theſe few as a ſpecimen. Here are on other parts of this rock, ſome Greek, and Arabic, as well as ſome Saracen inſcriptions, and an Hebrew one, which is, אתך ושמו. The Saracens and Arabic only ſay, "ſuch an one was here at ſuch a time;" the ſame ſay the Greek ones, except one, which ſays, as I remember, for I have it not with me, "The evil genius of the army wrote this," which can only prove, that ſome body of Greeks was worſted here, after the characters were written, and that they attributed their defeat to ſome magic power in theſe characters: as we are now fruitful in conjecture, perhaps ſome gentlemen will bring Xenophon here. The characters ſeem to be of the very ſame kind with thoſe ſtained on different parts of Mount Sinai, Meribah, &c. which my learned and accurate friend the biſhop of Oſſory has given.

The third day from this place, travelling weſtward, we encamped at Sarondou, as the journal calls it; but it is Korondel, where are the bitter waters, Marah. I tried if the branches of any of the trees had any effect on the waters; but found none: ſo the effect mentioned in ſcripture muſt have been miraculous. Theſe waters at the ſpring are ſomewhat bitter and brackiſh, but as every foot they run over the ſand is covered with bituminous ſalts, grown up by the exceſſive heat of the ſun, they acquire much ſaltneſs and bitterneſs, and very ſoon become not potable. This place, off which the ſhips caſt anchor, is below the ſand, which I mentioned before, near the Birque Korondel. After nine hours and a half march, we arrived and encamped at the deſert of Shur, or Sour. The conſtant tradition is, that the Iſraelites aſcended from the ſea here; this is, oppoſite to the plain Badeah to which the above mentioned paſs in the mountains leads. From this place the openings in the mountains appear a great crack, and may be called a mouth, taking Hiroth for an appellative. However, I ſhould rather adopt the ſignification of liberty. It would hardly have been neceſſary for the Iſraelites to paſs the ſea, if they were within two or three miles of the northern extremity of the gulf; the ſpace of at moſt two miles, the breadth of the gulf at Suez, and at moſt three foot deep at low water, for it is then conſtantly waded over, could not have contained ſo many people, or drowned Pharaoh's army. There would have been little neceſſity for his cavalry and chariots to precipitate themſelves after a number of people on foot, incumbered with their wives, children and baggage; when they could ſoon have overtaken them with going ſo little about. Theſe reaſons, added to the ſignificant names of the places, Taurache Beni Iſrael, road of the children of Iſrael; Attacah, Deliverance, Pihahiroth, whether an appellative or ſignificative; Badeah, new thing, or miracle; Bachorel Polſum, ſea of deſtruction; convince me that the Iſra-

elites entered the ſea at Badeah, and no where elſe Beſides, all the reſt of the coaſt from Suez, and below Badeah, is ſteep rocks, ſo there muſt have been another miracle for them to deſcend: the current too ſets from this place where we encamped, toward the oppoſite ſhore into the pool Birque Pharaone, Pool of Pharaoh, where, the tradition is, his hoſt was drowned; a current, formed, I ſuppoſe, by the falling and ruſhing of one watery wall on the other, and driving it down; a current, perhaps, by God permitted to remain ever ſince, in memoriam rei: the diſtance to the bitter waters is about thirty miles. I omitted to mention in its place, that, between this and Korondel, we were not ſo lucky as the author of the journal, who met with a charming rivulet of ſweet water; we met with none, good or bad. The Ain Mouſa, which the Iſraelites would have met with, if they had paſſed at Suez, and the coaſt from hence ſouthward, about a mile to Tor, being all rock, and ſteep too, induce me to believe, that they entered the ſea at Badeah, and aſcended from it here, and not at any other place. But I am too ſenſible of my own inability to decide, and leave that to better judges than I am. I only throw out what occurs to me, from the inſpection of the country, an inſpection as accurate as I am capable of. If any thing I have ſaid can in the leaſt ſupport that revelation, to which I dare declare myſelf a friend, even in this enlightened age, I ſhall be very happy; or if this trip of mine can be of any uſe whatever, as I had great pleaſure in it, I may truly ſay with Horace, — Omne tulit punctum, &c.

The denomination of ימיף, I believe, only regards the Hierapolitic branch, as the marine productions, Madrepores, &c. which form admirable foreſts in the bottom of it, are not in the Elanitic branch, or the gulf; I mean the broad part below Cape Mahomet. No more than that weſtern branch was known to the Iſraelites at the time of their paſſage, if it was to the Egyptians: but the name deſcended to the whole, as their knowledge of it. The Red Sea ſeems to regard the broad part alone; for though there are not the above mentioned ſea productions, yet there is ſo great a quantity of the tube coral (not found in the weſtern branch of the Hierapolitic gulf) and ſuch rocks, as one may ſay of them, that the Gedda ſhips faſten themſelves to them inſtead of caſting anchor. It is of a deep red, ſo that poſſibly, the firſt navigators entering at the ſtreight of Babel Mandel, from the red they ſaw, called it the Red Sea, and that name deſcended to the whole with their navigation. This ſea is tempeſtuous and full of ſhoals; there is no barbour on the Arabian coaſt after Tor, except one, I mean between Suez and Gidda or Mecca, which is a day and a half from Gidda. Gidda is its port; and there is only one on the other coaſt, Coſſire; but it is a very bad one; however, ſhips ſometimes go thither, and caravans croſs the country to Morſhout. The ſhips are, as the biſhop of Oſſory has deſcribed them; the helm is on the outſide, as I ſuppoſe with his lordſhip, that of St. Paul was.

They

They make uſe of but four ſails, and no compaſs, nor do they ever caſt the lead. They ſail only by day-light, from anchoring place to anchoring place, and are not above two days out of ſight of land, from Cape Mahomet to the Arabian main; if a gale happen, they are often loſt; about one in ten every year. I ſhall be glad to be honoured with the ſociety's commands, and in communicating this you will oblige,

Sir,

Your moſt humble Servant,
Ed. Wortley Montagu.

Piſa, Dec. 2, 1765.

P. S. I am a very bad draughtſman; but I aſſure you the ſketches contained in plate III. are rather better than the originals. They are about ſix inches long, the marble is whitiſh, in ſome places reddiſh, of a fleſh colour; they are engraved with a pointed inſtrument, for one ſees in the bottom of them, round marks of the point of the inſtrument. I have met with much baſalto, but not one piece of that ſoft ſtone of which is the buſt at Turin, nor any of the characters upon it, except ſome are found amongſt theſe, I have neither ſeen any head, buſt, or ſtatue, in the character of that.

The ſecond rock ſtruck by Moſes is, I think, 43 feet long, 16 broad, 13 high; it has two cracks, oblique ones; in them are ſome mouths, like thoſe of Meribah: it is of a hard ſtone, not granite or marble.

I have the exact dimenſions and elevation of the ſecond ſtone, as well as of Meribah.

Some account of the ruins of Poeſtum, or Poſſidonia, an ancient city of Magna Græcia, in the kingdom of Naples, which have been lately diſcovered. Extracted from a work newly publiſhed, that contains a deſcription and views of the remaining antiquities, the inſcriptions that have been diſcovered in or near that city, together with its ancient and modern hiſtory, &c.

HOW aſtoniſhing ſoever it may ſeem, that ſuch very conſiderable remains of ancient magnificence ſhould have continued totally undiſcovered during ſo many centuries, it is nevertheleſs moſt certain that the author of this book is the firſt traveller who has given us any account of the ruins of Poeſtum, If indeed this city, like Herculaneum, had been buried under ground by an earthquake or the eruption of a volcano, its concealments would not be at all miraculous. This miracle, however, is to be accounted for from its remote ſituation, in a part of Italy entirely unfrequented by travellers. The manner in which it was diſcovered is related by our author in the following words: "In the year 1755, an apprentice to a painter at Naples, who was on a viſit to his friends at Capaccio, by accident took a walk to the mountains which ſurround the territory of Poeſtum. The only habitation he perceived was the cottage of a farmer, who cultivated the beſt part of the ground,

ground, and reſerved the reſt for paſture. The ruins of the antient city made a part of this view, and particularly ſtruck the eyes of the young painter; who, approaching nearer, ſaw with aſtoniſhment, walls, towers, gates, and temples. Upon his return to Capaccio, he conſulted the neighbouring people about the origin of theſe monuments of antiquity. He could only learn, that this part of the country had been uncultivated and abandoned during their memory; that about ten years before, the farmer, whoſe habitation he had noticed, eſtabliſhed himſelf there; and that having dug in many places, and ſearched among the ruins that lay round him, he had found treaſures ſufficient to enable him to purchaſe the whole. At the painter's return to Naples, he informed his maſter of theſe particulars, whoſe curioſity was ſo greatly excited by the deſcription, that he took a journey to the place, and made drawings of the principal views. Theſe were ſhewn to the king of Naples, who ordered the ruins to be cleared, and Poeſtum aroſe from the obſcurity in which it had remained for upwards of ſeven hundred years, as little known to the neighbouring inhabitants as to travellers."

Our learned author, who has certainly been upon the ſpot, gives the following deſcription of Poeſtum, in its preſent ſtate. It is, ſays he, of an oblong figure, about two miles and a half in circumference. It has four gates, which are oppoſite to each other. On the key ſtone of the arch of the north gate, on the outſide, is the figure of Neptune in baſſo relievo, and within a hippocampus. The walls which ſtill remain are compoſed of very large cubical ſtones, and are extremely thick, in ſome parts eighteen feet. That the walls have remained unto this time, is owing to the very exact manner in which the ſtones are fitted to one another (a circumſtance obſerved univerſally in the maſonry of the antients; and perhaps in ſome meaſure to a ſtalactical concretion which has grown over them. On the walls here and there are placed towers of different heights, thoſe near the gates being much higher and larger than the others, and are evidently of modern workmanſhip. He obſerves that, from its ſituation among marſhes, bituminous and ſulphurous ſprings, Poeſtum muſt have been unwholeſome; a circumſtance mentioned by Strabo, *morboſam eam facit fluvius in paludes diffuſus*. In ſuch a ſituation the water muſt have been bad. Hence the inhabitants were obliged to convey that neceſſary of life from purer ſprings by means of aqueducts, of which many veſtiges ſtill remain.

The principal monuments of antiquity are a theatre, an amphitheatre, and three temples. The theatre and amphitheatre are much ruined. The firſt temple is hexaſtylos, and amphiproſtylos. At one end the pilaſtres and two columns which divided the cella from the pronaos are ſtill remaining. Within the cella are two rows of ſmaller columns, with an architrave, which ſupport the ſecond order. This temple he takes to be of that kind called by Vitruvius Hyphæthros, and ſupports his opinion by a quotation from

from that author. The ſecond temple is alſo amphiproſtylos: it has nine columns in front and eighteen in flank, and ſeems to be of that kind called by Vitruvius Pſeudodipteros. The third is likewiſe amphiproſtylos. It has ſix columns in front and thirteen in flank. Vitruvius calls this kind of temple Peripteros. 'The columns of theſe temples, ſays our author, are of that kind of Doric order which we find employed in works of the greateſt antiquity. They are hardly five diameters in height. They are without baſes, which alſo has been urged as a proof of their antiquity; but we do not find that the ancients ever uſed baſes to this order, at leaſt till very late. Vitruvius makes no mention of baſes for this order; and the only inſtance we have of it, is in the firſt order of the coliſæum at Rome, which was built by Veſpaſian. The pillars of theſe temples are fluted with very ſhallow flutings in the manner deſcribed by Vitruvius. The columns diminiſh from the bottom, which was the moſt ancient method almoſt univerſ lly in all the orders The columns have aſtragals of a very ſingular form; which ſhews the error of thoſe who imagine that this member was firſt invented with the Ionic order, to which the Greeks gave an aſtragal, and that the Romans were the firſt who applied it to the Doric. The echinus of the capital is of the ſame form with that of the temple of Corinth deſcribed by Le Roy.'

Our author mentions many other particulars which ſufficiently prove the great antiquity of theſe temples, and concludes with ſaying, that 'about the time when the temples at Poeſtum were built, architecture ſeems to have received that degree of improvement which the elegant taſte of the Greeks had ſtruck out from the rude maſſes of the Egyptians, the firſt inventors of this as of many other arts.'

To this account of Poeſtum are ſubjoined four very fine prints, engraved by Miller, which will be a laſting monument of the abilities of that artiſt in works of this nature In the firſt we are preſented with a view of Poeſtum in its preſent ſtate. The ſecond exhibits an oblique view of the three Grecian temples. In the third we have an inſide proſpect of the temple Amphiproſtylos, and the fourth repreſents the temple Peripteros. The keeping, and in ſhort the entire execution of theſe four plates, is altogether admirable.

Among the inſcriptions is the following, which ſhews that a man's having 28 children and 83 grand-children was deemed by the ancients a ſufficient reaſon for preſerving his name from oblivion.

TVLL. OLERII. POESTANI.
QVI. VIX. A. LXXXXV. D. XI.
FF. XXVIII. NN. LXXXIII.
C.L.PP.

A ſhort account of the Sedmy Palaty, or Seven Palaces; a remarkable building and veſtige of antiquity ſtill remaining on the banks of the river Irtiſh, in the country of the Kalmucks, being in the wilds of the great or eaſtern Tartary. From the travels of Mr. Bell of Antermony.

IT is very ſurpriſing to find ſuch a regular edifice in the middle of

of a desert. Some of the Tartars say it was built by Tamerlane, called by the Tartars Temyr-ack-sack or Lame-temyr; others by Gingeez-chan. The building, according to the best information I could obtain, is of brick or stone, well finished, and continues still entire. It consists of seven appartments under one roof, from whence it has the name of the Seven Palaces. Several of these rooms are filled with scrolls of glazed paper, fairly wrote, and many of them in gilt characters. Some of the scrolls are black, but the greatest part white. The language in which they are written is that of the Tonguses or Kalmucks. While I was at Tobolsky, I met with a soldier in the street with a bundle of these papers in his hand. He asked me to buy them; which I did for a small sum. I kept them till my arrival in England, when I distributed them among my friends; particularly to that learned antiquarian Sir Hans Sloane, who valued them at a high rate, and gave them a place in his celebrated museum.

Two of these scrolls were sent, by order of the emperor Peter the first, to the royal academy at Paris. The academy returned a translation, which I saw in the rarity chamber at St. Petersburg. One of them contained a commission to a lama or priest; and the other a form of prayer to the deity. Whether this interpretation may be depended on I shall not determine.

The Tartars esteem them all sacred writings, as appears from the care they take to preserve them. Perhaps they may contain some curious pieces of antiquity, particularly of ancient history. Above the Sedmy Palaty, towards the source of the Irtish, upon the hills and valley, grows the best rhubarb in the world, without the least culture.

Of some ancient monuments in the same country. From the same.

ABOUT eight or ten days journey from Tomsky, in this plain, are found many tombs and burying places of ancient heroes; who, in all probability, fell in battle. These tombs are easily distinguished by the mounds of earth and stones raised upon them. When, or by whom, these battles were fought so far to the northward, is uncertain. I was informed by the Tartars in the Baraba, that Tamerlane, or Timyr-ack-sack, as they call him, had many engagements in that country with the Kalmucks; whom he in vain endeavoured to conquer. Many persons go from Tomsky and other parts, every summer, to these graves; which they dig up, and find, among the ashes of the dead, considerable quantities of gold, silver, brass, and some precious stones, but particularly hilts of swords and armour. They find also ornaments of saddles and bridles, and other trappings for horses; and even the bones of horses, and sometimes those of elephants. Whence it appears, that when any general or person of distinction was interred, all his arms, his favourite horse and servant were buried with him in the same grave; this custom prevails to this day among the Kalmucks and other Tartars, and seems to be of great antiquity.

It

It appears from the number of graves, that many thouſands muſt have fallen on theſe plains; for the people have continued to dig for ſuch treaſure many years, and ſtill find it unexhauſted. They are, ſometimes indeed, interrupted, and robbed of all their booty, by parties of the Kalmucks, who abhor the diſturbing the aſhes of the dead.

I have ſeen ſeveral pieces of armour, and other curioſities, that were dug out of theſe tombs; particularly an armed man on horſe-back caſt in braſs, of no mean deſign nor workmanſhip; alſo figures of deer, caſt in pure gold, which were ſplit through the middle, and had ſome ſmall holes in them, as intended for ornaments to a quiver, or the furniture of a horſe.

While we were at Tomſky, one of theſe grave diggers told me, that once they lighted on an arched vault; where they found the remains of a man, with his bow, arrows, lance, and other arms, lying together on a ſilver table. On touching the body it fell to duſt. The value of the table and arms was very conſiderable.

Some account of a remarkable monument in the Iſle of Purbeck; known by the names of Aggleſton, Stone-Barrow, the Devil's Night-cap, &c.

THIS prodigious ſtone, hardly equalled by any in England, and the greateſt piece of antiquity in this country, ſtands in the N. E. extremity of the iſle of Purbeck, in an heath on the eaſt ſide of Studland bay, in that pariſh, on the eſtate of John Bankes, of Kingſton-hall, Eſq; about a mile N. W. from Studland, and ſix leagues from the iſle of Wight. It is ſurrounded on all ſides by ſeveral little hills, or riſing grounds, which form a theatre, except on the eaſt, where they open, and give an agreeable view of part of Pool and Studland bays, and the Iſle of Wight.

The name Aggleſton ſeems to be derived from the Saxon *halig*, or *hælig*, *holy*; and *ſtan*, a *ſtone*; which is expreſſive of its ancient ſuperſtitious uſe, for it was, no doubt, a rock-idol * or deity in the Britiſh age. The country people call it the *devil's night-cap*, and have a romantic tradition that the devil, out of envy, threw it from the Iſle of Wight, with a deſign to have demoliſhed Corf caſtle, but it fell ſhort, and dropt here.

It is a red heath, ſand, or moor-ſtone, which, though very common over all the heath, does not abound hereabouts, or at leaſt of any bigneſs. It ſtands on an high barrow, or tumulus; its preſent form is that of a pyramid inverted; or an irregular triangle, one of whoſe ſides is placed uppermoſt, though it is probable it was originally quadrilateral. On the eaſt front it is convex or gibbous, on the weſt nearly flat. On the top, a ridge or bulge runs its whole length from north to ſouth, whence it ſlopes away to the eaſt ſix feet, to the weſt five. There is a conſiderable cleft croſſes it in the middle from eaſt to weſt. On the ſurface are three hollows or cavities, no doubt † rock baſons, in which ravens have bred. The ſurface is overgrown with heath, and turves have been cut there.

* See Dr. Borlace's Antiq. of Cornwall, lib. 3, cap. 3. p. 161.

† Borlace, ib. l. 3, c. 2, p. 225, plate 17.

All

All the ſtone is rough, full of cracks, fiſſures, and inequalities, and parts into horizontal layers, or lamina, eſpecially on the eaſt ſide, and at the ends.

The dimenſions are as follow: The girt or circumference at bottom is 60 feet, in the middle 80, at or near the top 90. But theſe meaſurements, by reaſon of the inequality of the ſurface, cannot be very exact. The quarriers compute it contains 407 tuns.

On the top of the barrow lie ſeveral ſtones, one of which contains 16, another 9 tuns. On the ſides and bottom a multitude of others, of various ſizes, moſtly covered with heath, furze, and fern. Some tuns have been broken off, and carried to Pool and Studland, for building. If we conſider this, and the detached ſtones before mentioned, which were certainly fragments of the great one, ſeparated from it by violence, time, and weather, it muſt have been a prodigious one indeed, not inferior to the Tolmen at Conſtantine in Cornwall, the meaſurements of which, in Dr. Borlace, fall ſhort of this, though he makes it contain more tuns.

There is little doubt but that the ancient Britons had ſkill to lift great weights, and ſpared no pains to erect ſuch vaſt rude monuments, many of which are extant at Stone Henge, Abury in Cornwall, and other parts of the three kingdoms. Yet the enormous bulk of this ſtone, in its primitive ſtate, may incline one to imagine it to be a natural rock, and that the barrow was formed, by a collection of earth thrown up round it; or if the barrow be thought too large to be artificial, perhaps the ſtone might grow here, on a natural hillock, and the earth at top might be removed, and the ſtone laid bare, to a depth ſuitable to the uſe it was deſigned for, and then the hillock might be ſhaped into its preſent regular form.

Yet Silbury hill in Wiltſhire, and many other vaſt barrows allowed to be artificial, mentioned by Dr. Borlace, lib. 3. c. 8. p. 205—207, are much larger than this, and are ſtrong evidences of the labour and time beſtowed by the ancient Britons, and other nations, on ſuch works.

The etymology of Aggleſton, and the rock baſons on it, determine it to be a rock idol, erected in the Britiſh age, and the object of their ſuperſtitious worſhip.

The barrow on which this ſtone ſtands is very large. Its diameter on top is 60 feet, at bottom it occupies half an acre and 14 rood of ground. Its ſlope on the eaſt ſide, where it is ſteepeſt, is 300 feet, the perpendicular height 90 feet. On the north and ſouth, it is nearly of an equal height. On the weſt it is much leſs ſteep. It is all covered with heath, furze, and fern. On the top it is concave, worn down by ſheep lying there, or by attempts to break off ſtone. Round the bottom appear traces of a ſhallow ditch, almoſt filled up, and covered by heath, &c. About it are ſeveral other barrows of different forms and ſizes. On one, a little north from it, called Puck-ſtone, is a ſtone thrown down ten feet by eight.

This monument ſtanding in an unfrequented part of the country, and hid by the hills that almoſt environ it, was ſcarce known or obſerved till it lately drew the attention of James Frampton, of

More-

Moreton, Esq; who recommended it to the notice of the public, as it deserved.

The Tolmen at Constantine is of an oval form; its long diameter, which points due north and south, is 33 feet, its short one 14—6. its breadth in the middle of the surface, where it is deepest, from east to west, 18—6. Its circumference 97 feet, and about 60 cross in the middle, and contains 750 tuns — Dr. Borlace, ibid. l. 3, c. 8. p. 168, plate II.

Silbury hill is a large barrow, without any stone on it. Its diameter at top is 105 feet, at the bottom above 503, its perpendicular height is 170.—See Dr. Borlace, l. 3. c. 8. p. 206; and Dr. Stukeley on Stone Henge.

A charter of King Henry the Third, in the old English of that time; with a translation of it into modern English, by Mr. Somner. From the Appendix to Lord Lyttleton's History.

Rot. Pat. 43. H. III. m. 15. nº 40.

HENRY thurg Godes fultome King on Engleneloande Lhoauerd on Yrloand Duk on Normand. on Acquitain and Eorl on Anjou. send I, greting to alle hise holde ilærde and ilewede on Huntindonnschiere; thæt witen ge wel, alle thæt we willen and unnen, thæt ure rædesmen alle other the moare del of heom, thæt beoth ichosen thurg us and thurg that *Loandes Folk*, on ure Kuneriche habbeth idon, and schullen don in the worthnes of Gode, and ure treowthe for the freme of the Loane, thurg the besigted of than to foren iseide rædesmen beo stedefæst and ilestinde in all thinge abutan ænde, and the heaten alle ure treowe in the treowthe thet neo us ogen, that heo stede festliche healden and weren to healden and to swerien the isetnesses thæt beon makede and beon to makien thurg than to foren iseide rædesmen, other thurg the moare dæl of heom alswo; alse hit is beforen iseid. And thæt æhcother helpe thæt for to done bitham ilche other agenes alle men [*paucula quædam hic deesse videntur, hæc scilicet aut similia*: in alle thinge thæt] ogt for to done and to soangen. And noan ne mine of Loande ne of egetewher thurg this besigte muge beon ilet other iwersed on oniewise. And gif oni ether onie cumen her ongenes we willen and heaten, thæt alle ure treowe heom healden deadlichistan. And for thæt we willen thet this beo stedefæst and lestinde, we senden gew this Writ open iseined with ure Seel to halden amanges gew ine Hord. Witnes us seluen æt Lundæn thane egtetenth day on the Monthe of Octobr, in the two and fowertigthe geare of ure crunninge. And thir wes idon ætforen ure isworen redesmen, Bonefac. Archebischop on Kanterbur. Walter of Cantelop, Bischop of Wirechester, Sim of Montfort Eorle on Leichestre, Rich. of Clare Eorl on Glochester and on Hartford; Roger Bigod Eorl of Northfolk and Marescal on Engleloand. Perres of Sauueye, Will. of Fort Eorl on Aubem, John de Plesse Eorl on Warwick, Joh. Gefferees sune, Perres of Muntfort, Rich. of Grey, Rog. of Mortemer, Iames of Aldithel, and ætforen othre moge.

AND all on tho ilche worden is isend in to aurichte othre Schire

ouer

ouer al thare Kuneriche on Engleneloande and ek inter Irelonde.

Tranſlation.

HENRY, by God's help, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy, and of Aquitain, and Earl of Anjoy, Greeting to all his faithful Clerks and Laics of Huntingdonſhire: This know ye all well, that we Will and Grant that which our Counſellors all or the moſt part of them that be choſen by us, and the people (or Commons) of our Land, have done, and ſhall do, for the Honour of God, and of their Allegiance to us, for the Benefit (or Amendment) of the Land, by the Advice or Conſideration of our foreſaid Counſellors, be ſtedfaſt and performed in every thing for ever. And we Command all our Liege People in the Fealty that they owe us, that they ſtedfaſtly hold, and ſwear to hold [or keep] and to defend [or maintain] the Statutes [or Proviſions] which be made, and ſhall be made, by thoſe aforeſaid Counſellors, or by the more part of them, alſo as it is beforeſaid; and that they each other aſſiſt the ſame to perform, according to that ſame Oath, againſt all Men, both for to do and cauſe to be done: And none neither of my Land, neither from elſewhere, may for this be hindered, or damnified in any wiſe: And if any man or woman oppoſe them againſt, we Will and Command that all our Liege People them hold for deadly Enemies; and becauſe we will, that this be ſtedfaſt and laſting, we ſend you this Writ open, ſigned with our Seal to be kept amongſt you in Store; witneſs our ſelf at London the 18th day of the Month October, in the two and fortieth Year of our Coronation; and this was done before our ſworn Counſellors, Boniface Archbiſhop of Canterbury, Walter of Cantelow Biſhop of Worceſter, Simon Montfort Earl of Leiceſter, Richard of Clare Earl of Gloceſter and of Hartford, Roger Bigod Earl of Norfolk and Mareſchal of England, Peter of Savoy, William of Fort Earl of Aubemarle, John of Pleſſeiz Earl of Warwick, John Gefferiſon, Peter of Montfort, Richard of Grey, Roger of Mortimer, James of Aldithly, and before others more.

And all in theſe ſame Words is ſent into every other Shire over the Kingdom of England, and alſo into Ireland.

Hiſtorical remarks on ancient architecture. From the Grecian Orders of Architecture; by Stephen Riou, Eſq.

IT muſt be an effectual check to the vanity of man, when he conſiders that by the decrees and diſpoſitions of ſupreme wiſdom, neither the corporeal nor the mental faculties are ever all united in one perſon; but that for the maintenance and good order of ſociety, the gifts of nature combined in a continually varied proportion, are with a marvellous œconomy divided and diſtributed amongſt the ſeveral individuals of our ſpecies; ſo that, how extenſive ſoever his capacity may be, how prompt his apprehenſion, how mighty his ſtrength, with the moſt exalted ambition, man will nevertheleſs ſtand in need of man. From the powers of the human being thus limited it is, that when we ſurvey the

the progreſs of genius either in the practices of art or the ſpeculations of ſcience, we find they never received their perfection from the ſame man who gave them birth; new inventions, however valuable, have for the moſt part been produced in a rude and defective ſtate, and have in proceſs of time, little by little, received from the ſkill and induſtry of others, ſuch additions and improvements as were neceſſary to give them all the perfection of which they are capable.

On the other hand, it has not unfrequently happened that the arts, inſtead of making any due advancement, even loſe the advantages which only a long ſeries of years, and the unremitted aſſiduity of true genius could obtain; for during an age of turbulence and diſtreſs no attention is beſtowed on them, abuſes creep unnoticed into the practice, and with the decline and ruin of empire, the arts themſelves decay and periſh: neither is this the only misfortune to which they are expoſed, for ſuch is the weakneſs of human nature, that in leſs calamitous times than thoſe we have ſuppoſed, the imagination may be vitiated, all ſound judgment perverted, and our purſuits led out of their proper track by the preſumption of the ignorant, the plauſive arguments of falſe reaſoners, or that propenſity with which the inconſiderate are determined to follow the ungovernable and unreſtrained career of a fancy animated with the rage of novelty, though fertile only in trifles and abſurdities.

Such viciſſitudes have happened to the art of which we are about to treat, as will appear from a view of what will be briefly offered on this ſubject.

The origin of art is the ſame in all nations that have cultivated it; and it is without foundation that the honour thereof be aſcribed to one particular country preferably to all others; in all places neceſſity has proved to be the mother of invention, and every people had in themſelves the ſeeds of contrivance in their various wants. The inventions of art were only more or leſs ancient as the nations themſelves were ſo, and as the adoration of the gods was introduced amongſt them ſooner or later: the Chaldeans and Egyptians, for example, had made much earlier than the Greeks, idols and other external forms of theſe imaginary beings, in order to worſhip them. It is the ſame of this as of other arts and inventions; the purple dye, not to ſpeak of others, was known and practiſed in the eaſt, long before the Greeks were acquainted with that ſecret. What is mentioned in Holy Writ, about carved or molten images, is likewiſe far more ancient than what we know of Greece. The carved images in wood of the firſt ages, and thoſe of caſt metal of later times, have different names in the Hebrew tongue,

They who, to judge of the origin of a cuſtom or of an art, and of its paſſage from one people to another, adhere to the mere contemplation of any detached fragments which may offer certain appearances of likeneſs; and thus from ſome particular equivocal forms draw their concluſions about the generality of an art, are groſsly deceived. In this manner Diony-

ſius of Halicarnaſſus was in the wrong to pretend, that the art of wreſtling among the Romans was derived from the Greeks, becauſe the drapery or ſcarf, worn by the Roman wreſtlers round their bodies, reſembled that worn by the wreſtlers of Greece. Art flouriſhed in Egypt from the earlieſt account of time; the greateſt obeliſks now at Rome are due to the Egyptians, and are dated as far back as the time of Seſoſtris, who lived near CCCC years before the Trojan war; they were the works of that king, and the city of Thebes was adorned with the moſt magnificent buildings, while art was yet unborn in Greece.

The arts, though produced later in Greece than among the nations of the eaſt, nevertheleſs aroſe from the moſt ſimple elements: this ſimplicity may ſuggeſt that the Grecians took nothing from others, but were truly original; they ſcarcely had the opportunity of becoming plagiariſts of the Egyptians; for before the reign of Pſammitichus, the entrance into Egypt was denied to every ſtranger, and the arts had then already been cultivated by the Grecians. The voyages of their philoſophers and ſages were chiefly undertaken to inſpect into the literature, religion, and government of that famous kingdom. The conjectures of thoſe who derive the arts from the eaſt, ſeem better grounded, eſpecially if they make them paſs from Phœnicia into Greece, the people of both theſe territories having had very ancient connections together; the latter having received the knowledge and uſe of letters by Cadmus. Before the time of Cyrus, the Etruſcans, powerful by ſea, were alſo allied for a conſiderable time with the Phœnicians; of this there needs no other proof than the fleet which they equipped in common againſt the Phoceans.

What Villalpandus has ſurmiſed concerning the temple of Solomon, that thence the Grecians borrowed their richeſt deſigns of the Corinthian order, though ſupported with great parade of learning, and many ſpecious ſubtilties, only leads into a maze of uncertainties; in rearing of this ſtately building, heated by a luxuriant fancy, he rather acted the panegyriſt than the hiſtorian. Let us follow the ſurer traces of fact and uncontroverted hiſtory, as we can diſcover them in the pages of a writer worthy of our attention, who after having judiciouſly explained the ſeveral particulars relating to the temple, thus concludes; "But though in points like this I have been upon, it be moſt lawful to err, yet thoſe are more excuſable, who keep a conſtant regard to the ſacred original above all things, than thoſe who manifeſtly depart from it to follow their own fancies, or the fabulous accounts of the Jews; now as I have drawn the greateſt part of my light from the former, I am ſenſible that thoſe who have been converſant with all the pompous deſcriptions we have extant, will be ſurpriſed to find this of mine come ſo vaſtly ſhort of the boaſted magnificence of this ſacred building. But here I deſire it may be remembered, that as this was deſigned to contain no more than could be met with, or fairly deduced from the ſacred writings, ſo the reader will at leaſt reap this benefit from it, that he will be better able to judge what is or is not authentic

in other plans of this ſtructure than he could have been without it. The following obſervations from others upon the ſubject are in the ſame ſtrain. The viſion of Ezekiel, c. xl. and ſeq. is taken for a deſcription of a prophetic or myſtical temple, that never exiſted but in the revelation that was made to him, and the repreſentation he has ſet down in his prophecy. As for ancient authors, we have none to produce but Joſephus, and other Jews rather of a later date than he. Now all that we learn from them, that has no foundation in holy writ, to us is no evidence at all. Much they knew or pretended to know from tradition, but that we preſume is not to be depended upon. We know no monuments they had beſide thoſe we have ourſelves: And the Hebrew tongue, properly ſo called, being a ſort of dead language at the time theſe authors wrote, it may well be doubted, without ſinning againſt modeſty, whether they who had no other books to learn it by, than thoſe now in uſe, could underſtand it better than thoſe who ſtudy it at preſent.

The Grecians, during the proſperous times of their commonwealths, were a nation of all others at that time in the world the moſt ingenious and the moſt cultivated. They ſeem to have been endowed with the greateſt propenſity to the arts, and to have felt the ſtrongeſt natural averſion to whatever ſavoured of inelegance and barbariſm; their country was ſtyled the mother and nurſe of art and ſcience. It is this nation which challengeth to itſelf the ſyſtem of thoſe three modes of architecture afterwards named the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders, thus denominated from the places where they were either invented, or firſt received into uſe; during the practice of ſome ages, they acquired all the improvements the Grecian genius in its greateſt vigour could beſtow; the imitations of ſuch examples, it may be preſumed, will ever excel all other inventions.

When the Roman ſtate had attained to the higheſt pitch of its glory, and the moſt cultivated as well as the moſt powerful nations were ſubdued, and were conſidered only as provinces of that mighty empire, the inhabitants of Italy diſtinguiſhed themſelves as well by their love and ſtudy of the fine arts as by their ſkill in arms; in both of which they muſt be allowed to ſtand next after the Grecians; it is then firſt to Athens, and afterwards to Rome, that the modern world owes the method of culture for every refinement; but at the ſame time, it is proper to obſerve, that the Romans, either through ignorance or pride, not content with the orders and diſpoſitions of Athenian architecture, ventured at ſeveral licentious alterations; they tacked two ſpurious orders, the Tuſcan and the Compoſite, the laſt called alſo Latin and Roman, to the three genuine ones, which alone are ſufficient to anſwer all the purpoſes in building, and which can never fail of obtaining the preference whenever they are examined by an attentive and intelligent ſpectator. It is matter of great regret to the inveſtigators of this art, that among the writers of antiquity we find little on which to fix our ideas, or form our taſte. The writings of Vitruvius Pollio have been tranſmitted down to us; this claſſic author flouriſhed about the

DCC year of Rome, in the reigns of Julius Cæsar, and of his succeſſor Auguſtus; to the latter he dedicated his ten books of architecture, and to theſe, next to the veſtiges of ancient edifices, poſterity remains indebted for many ſucceſsful attempts to reſtore architecture in its original ſimplicity and beauty: nor beſides Vitruvius were wanting other ingenious men, who in their writings had probably given many illuſtrations and maxims of their art; ſeveral of their names have deſcended down to us, but their writings have periſhed; yet what ſort of artiſts they were, if their books have not remained to inform us, their works in many noble edifices, ſtill remaining, give faithful teſtimony to their merit, and chiefly in Greece and Italy, where this profeſſion was better preſerved, and maintained its reputation, that for the courſe of about two centuries from the days of Auguſtus, the manner and ſtyle of building remained unaltered, although the falſe taſte for internal decorations was prevailing even in the time of Vitruvius. Tacitus informs us in general, that there were no perſons of great genius after the battle of Actium, but in the decline of the Roman empire, ſuch a decline and change ſeemed alſo to affect the intellects of individuals, whence learning and all the fine arts, which had flouriſhed to admiration and for ſo long a period, fell into diſrepute, and were abſorbed by the barbariſms which overwhelmed the land. Architecture ſoon ſaw itſelf miſerably transformed, every good mode thereof was overthrown and ſpoiled, every true practice corrupted, its antique graces and majeſty loſt, and a manner altogether confuſed and irregular introduced, wherein none of its former features were diſcernible.

The Goths prevailed!

At laſt came the fifteenth and ſixteenth centuries of the chriſtian æra, ſo glorious for the reſtoration of literature and of arts; then it was that many happy minds, ſhaking off the ruſt of ignorance, and freeing themſelves from the chains of indolency which had fettered the preceding generations, recalled again into life all the fine arts and all the fineſt faculties and rules, ſo that it ſeemed as if the taſte of old Greece and Rome was revived in its true ſplendor and dignity: however, to keep within due limits, it ſufficeth to ſay, that architecture in Italy very ſoon appeared with the expected advantages; and the writings, as well as the works of the ſeveral great maſters of that time, remain the undeniable proofs of their abilities.

——— Having already mentioned the Goths, it may not appear altogether improper to ſay ſomething of their architecture. The name of Gothic was given to all ſuch buildings as were not deſigned according to the rules of Grecian or Roman Architecture. There are two ſorts of Gothic, the ancient and the modern, (but improperly ſo called); in England and the northern parts of Europe, the ancient Gothic includes the Saxon and Daniſh, in which indeed we may obſerve ſome traces of elegance and ſtrength. It appears that their artiſts were not entirely ignorant of proportions, though they did not confine themſelves ſtrictly to ſuch as were beautiful; ſolely attentive to render their works ſolid and durable, they were

were more ſtudious to produce the marvellous by the enormous ſize of their fabrics, than by any regularity of ſtructure, or propriety of ornaments. Theſe are the marks that characterize the Goths, a rough unpoliſhed people, of huge ſtature and of dreadful looks, that iſſuing out from the northern parts of our hemiſphere, where neceſſity taught them to guard againſt the violence of ſtorms and the fury of torrents, increaſed by the inundations of melted ſnow, carried into milder climates their monſtrous taſte of heavy architecture, and only in a ſmall degree corrected their encumbered notions by the ſight of Roman edifices; but the models they had to contemplate were not without their faults, for from the reign of Alexander Severus, architecture had greatly degenerated. Thus a want of natural genius, a want of models, and every thing contributed to hinder the Goths from acquiring any good mode of building. This is the ſummary of the ancient or heavy Gothic architecture; ſome of the cathedrals and other public edifices, not only in this country, but in many others of the continent, ſtill remain as models of this ſort. Modern Gothic, as it is called, is deduced from a different quarter; it is diſtinguiſhed by the lightneſs of its works, by the exceſſive boldneſs of its elevations and of its ſections, by the delicacy, profuſion, and extravagant fancy of its ornaments: the pillars of this kind are as ſlender as thoſe of the ancient Gothic are maſſive. Such productions, ſo airy, cannot admit the heavy Goths for their authors; how can be attributed to them a ſtyle of architecture which was only introduced in the Xth century of our æra, ſeveral years after the deſtruction of all thoſe kingdoms which the Goths had raiſed upon the ruins of the Roman empire, and at a time when the very name of Goth was entirely forgotten? From all the marks of this new architecture, it can only be attributed to the Moors, or what is the ſame thing, to the Arabians or Saracens, who have expreſſed in their architecture the ſame taſte as in their poeſy, both the one and the other falſely delicate, crowded with ſuperfluous ornaments, and often very unnatural. The imagination is highly worked up in both, but it is an extravagant imagination; and this has rendered the edifices of the Arabians (we may include the other orientals) as extraordinary as their thoughts; if any one doubts of this aſſertion, let us appeal to thoſe who have ſeen the Moſcheas, and the palaces of Fez, or ſome of the cathedrals of Spain, built by the Moors; one model of this ſort is the church at Burgos; and even in this iſland, there are not wanting ſeveral examples of the ſame. Such buildings have been vulgarly called modern Gothic, but their true appellation is Arabeſc, Saracenic, or Moreſc.

This manner was introduced into Europe through Spain. Learning flouriſhed among the Arabians all the time that their dominion was in full power; they ſtudied philoſophy, mathematics, phyſic, and poetry: the love of learning was at once excited in all places that were not at too great a diſtance from Spain: theſe authors were read, and ſuch of the Greek authors as they had tranſlated into Arabic were from thence turned

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into Latin. The phyſic and philoſophy of the Arabians ſpread themſelves in Europe, and with theſe their architecture; many churches were built after the Saracenic mode, and others, with a mixture of heavy and light proportions; the alteration that the difference of climate might require, was little if at all conſidered. In the moſt ſouthern parts of Europe, and in Africa, the windows (before the uſe of glaſs) made with narrow apertures, and placed very high in the walls of the buildings, occaſioned a ſhade and darkneſs within-ſide, and were well contrived to guard againſt the fierceſt rays of the ſun, yet were ill-ſuited to thoſe latitudes where that glorious luminary ſheds its feebler influences, and is but rarely ſeen through a watery cloud. The heavy Gothic by Sir C. Wren, is diſtinguiſhed as Anglo-Saxonic, the lighter as Saracenic; of this laſt the following account may be added to what has juſt now been delivered on the ſame ſubject. The holy war gave the Chriſtians, who had been there, an idea of the Saracens' works, which were afterwards imitated by them in the weſt; and they refined upon it every day, as they proceeded in building churches. The Italians (among which were yet ſome Greek refugees) and with them the French, Germans, and Flemings, joined into a fraternity, procuring papal bulls for their encouragement and particular privileges. The ſtiled themſelves *Free Maſons*, and ranged from nation to nation, as they found churches to be built, (for very many in thoſe days were every where in building) through the piety of multitudes. Their government was regular, and where they fixed near the building they made a camp of hills. A ſurveyor governed in chief, and every tenth man was called a warden, and overlooked each nine. The gentlemen of the neighbourhood, either out of charity or commutation of penance, gave the materials and carriage, and hence were called *accepted Maſons*. It is admirable with what œconomy and how ſoon they erected ſuch conſiderable ſtructures. But as all modes, when once the old rational ways are deſpiſed, turn at laſt into unbounded fancies, the tracery of theſe architects who affected towers and ſteeples, though the Saracens affected cupolas, introduced too much mincing of the ſtone into open battlements, ſpindling pinnacles, and little carvings without proportion of diſtance, ſo that the eſſential rules of good perſpective and duration were forgot.

An account of the cruel ſacrifices of the Canaanites, Phenicians, and other Nations. From Obſervations and Inquiries relating to other parts of ancient Hiſtory; by Jacob Bryant.

ONE would think it ſcarce poſſible, that ſo unnatural a cuſtom, as that of human ſacrifices, ſhould have exiſted in the world; but it is very certain, that it did not only exiſt, but almoſt univerſally prevail. I have before taken notice, that the Egyptians of old brought no victims to their temples, nor ſhed any blood at their altars: But human victims and the blood of men muſt be here excepted; which at one period they moſt certainly offered to their gods. The Cretans had the ſame cuſtom, and adhered to it a much longer time. The nations of Arabia did

did the ſame. The people of Dumah in particular ſacrificed every year a child; and buried it underneath an altar, which they made uſe of inſtead of an idol: For they did not admit of images. The Perſians buried people alive. Ameſtris, the wife of Xerxes, entombed twelve perſons quick under ground for the good of her ſoul. It would be endleſs to enumerate every city, or every province, where theſe ſad practices obtained. The Cyprians, the Rhodians, the Phoceans, the Ionians, thoſe of Chios, Leſbos, Tenedos, all had human ſacrifices. The natives of the Tauric Cherſoneſus offered up to Diana every ſtranger whom chance threw upon their coaſt. Hence aroſe that juſt expoſtulation in Euripides, upon the inconſiſtency of the proceeding; wherein much good reaſoning is implied. Iphigenia wonders, as the goddeſs delighted in the blood of men, that every villain and murderer ſhould be privileged to eſcape; nay, be driven from the threſhold of the temple: Whereas, if an honeſt and virtuous man chanced to ſtray thither, he only was ſeized upon, and put to death. The Pelaſgi in a time of ſcarcity vowed the tenth of all that ſhould be born to them, for a ſacrifice in order to procure plenty. Ariſtomenes the Meſſenian ſlew three hundred noble Lacedemonians, among whom was Theopompus the King of Sparta, at the altar of Jupiter at Ithome. Without doubt the Lacedemonians did not fail to make ample returns: For they were a ſevere and revengeful people, and offered the like victims to Mars. Their feſtival of the Diamaſtigoſis is well known; when the Spartan boys were whipped in the ſight of their parents with ſuch ſeverity before the altar of Diana Orthia, that they often expired under the torture. Phylarchus affirms, as he is quoted by Porphyry, that of old every Grecian ſtate made it a rule, before they marched towards an enemy, to ſolicit a bleſſing on their undertakings by human victims.

The Romans were accuſtomed to the like ſacrifices. They both devoted themſelves to the infernal gods, and conſtrained others to ſubmit to the ſame horrid doom. Hence we read in Titus Livius that in the conſulate of Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, two Gauls, a man and a woman, and two in like manner of Greece, were buried alive at Rome in the Ox-market; where was a place under ground, walled round to receive them; which had before been made uſe of for ſuch cruel purpoſes. He ſays, it was a ſacrifice not properly Roman; that is, not originally of Roman inſtitution: Yet it was frequently practiſed there, and that too by public authority. Plutarch makes mention of a like inſtance a few years before, in the conſulſhip of Flaminius and Furius. There is reaſon to think, that all the principal captives who graced the triumphs of the Romans, were at the cloſe of that cruel pageantry put to death at the altar of Jupiter Capitolinus. Caius Marius offered up his own daughter for a victim to the Dii Averrunci, to procure ſucceſs in a battle againſt the Cimbri; as we are informed by Dorotheus, quoted by Clemens. It is likewiſe atteſted by Plutarch, who ſays that her name was Calpurnia. Marius was a man of a

ſour and bloody diſpoſition; and had probably heard of ſuch ſacrifices being offered in the enemies camp, among whom they were very common: or he might have beheld them exhibited at a diſtance: and therefore murdered what was neareſt, and ſhould have been dearеſt, to him; to counteract their fearful ſpells, and outdo them in their wicked machinery. Cicero making mention of this cuſtom being common in Gaul, adds, that it prevailed among that people, even at the time when he was ſpeaking: from whence we may be led to infer, that it was then diſcontinued among the Romans. And we are told by Pliny, that it had then, and not very long, been diſcouraged. For there was a law enacted, when Lentulus and Craſſus were conſuls, ſo late as the 657th year of Rome, that there ſhould be no more human ſacrifices: for till that time thoſe horrid rites had been celebrated in broad day without any maſk or controul: which, had we not the beſt evidence for the fact, would appear ſcarce credible. And however diſcontinued they may have been for a time, we find, that they were again renewed; though they became not ſo public, nor ſo general. For not very long after this, it is reported of Auguſtus Cæſar, when Perufia ſurrendered in the time of the ſecond Triumvirate, that beſides multitudes executed in a military manner, he offered up upon the Ides of March three hundred choſen perſons, both of the Equeſtrian and Senatorian order, at an altar dedicated to the manes of his uncle Julius. Even at Rome itſelf this cuſtom was revived: and Porphyry aſſures us, that in his time a man was every year ſacrificed at the ſhrine of Jupiter Latiaris. Heliogabalus offered the like victims to the Syrian deity, which he introduced among the Romans. The ſame is ſaid of Aurelian.

The Gauls and the Germans were ſo devoted to this ſhocking cuſtom, that no buſineſs of any moment was tranſacted among them, without being prefaced with the blood of men. They were offered up to various gods; but particularly to Heſus, Taranis, and Thautates. Theſe deities are mentioned by Lucan, where he enumerates the various nations who followed the fortunes of Cæſar.

Et quibus immitis placatur ſanguine aïro,
Thautates; horrenſque feris altaribus Heſus;
Et Taranis Scythicæ non mitior ara Dianæ.

The altars of theſe gods were far removed from the common reſort of men: being generally ſituated in the depth of woods; that the gloom might add to the horror of the operation, and give a reverence to the place and proceeding. The perſons devoted were led thither by the Druids, who preſided at the ſolemnity, and performed the cruel offices of the ſacrifice. Tacitus takes notice of the cruelty of the Hermunduri, in a war with the Catti, wherein they had greatly the advantage; at the cloſe of which they made one general ſacrifice of all that was taken in battle. *Victor diverſam aciem Marti ac Mercurio ſacraverat: quo voto, equi, viri, cuncta victa occidioni dantur.* The poor remains of the legions under

under Varus ſuffered in ſome degree the ſame fate. *Lucis propinquis barbaræ aræ, apud quas Tribunos, ac primorum ordinum centuriones mactaverant.* There were many places deſtined for this purpoſe all over Gaul and Germany; but eſpecially in the mighty woods of Arduenna, and the great Hercinian foreſt; a wild, that extended above thirty days journey in length. The places ſet apart for this ſolemnity were held in the utmoſt reverence; and only approached at particular ſeaſons. Lucan mentions a grove of this ſort near Maſſilia, which even the Roman ſoldiers were afraid to to violate, though commanded by Cæſar. It was one of thoſe ſet apart for the ſacrifices of the country.

Lucus erat longo nunquam violatus ab ævo.
Obſcurum cingens connexis aëra ramis.
Hunc non ruricolæ Panes, nemorumque potentes
Sylvani, Nymphæque tenent: ſed barbara ritu
Turba Deûm: ſtructæ ſacris feralibus aræ,
Omnis et humanis luſtrata cruoribus arbos.

Claudian compliments Stilico, that, among other advantages accruing to the Roman armies through his conduct, they could now venture into the awful foreſt of Hercinia; and follow the chace in thoſe ſo much dreaded woods, and otherwiſe make uſe of them.

Ut procul Herciniæ per vaſta ſilentia ſylvæ
Venari tutò liceat; lucoſque vetuſtâ
Religione truces et robora numinis inſtar
Barbarici, noſtræ feriant impune ſecures.

Theſe practices prevailed among all the people of the north, of whatever denomination. The Maſſagetæ, the Scythians, the Getes, the Sarmatians, all the various nations upon the Baltick, particularly the Suevi and Scandinavians, held it as a fixed principle, that their happineſs and ſecurity could not be obtained, but at the expence of the lives of others. Their chief gods were Thor, and Woden; whom, they thought, they could never ſufficiently glut with blood. They had many very celebrated places of worſhip; eſpecially in the iſland Rugen, near the mouth of the Oder; and in Zeeland: ſome too very famous among the Semnones, and Naharvalli. But the moſt reverenced of all, and the moſt frequented, was at Upſal; where there was every year a grand celebrity, which continued for nine days. During this term they ſacrificed animals of all ſorts: but the moſt acceptable victims, and the moſt numerous, were men. *Ipſas victimas apud pleroſque commendabat humanus ſanguis, effuſus ante Deorum aras, et diro carmine devotus: introductâ immani illâ, ac babarâ Scytharum conſuetudine, qui Deos immortales hominum ſcelere et ſanguine placari poſſe arbitrabantur.* Of theſe ſacrifices none were eſteemed ſo auſpicious, and ſalutary, as a ſacrifice of the prince of the country. When the lot fell for the king to die, it was received with univerſal acclamations, and every expreſſion of joy; as it once happened in the time of a famine, when they caſt lots,

lots, and it fell to king Domalder to be the people's victim: and he was accordingly put to death. Olaus Tretelger, another prince, was burnt alive to Woden. They did not spare their own children. Harald the son of Gunild, the first of that name, slew two of his children to obtain a storm of wind. "He did not let," says Verstegan, "to sacrifice two of his sons unto "his idols, to the end he might "obtain of them such a tempest at "sea, as should break and disperse "the shipping of Harald king of "Denmark." Saxo Grammaticus mentions a like fact. He calls the king Haquin: and speaks of the persons put to death, as two very hopeful young princes: *Duos præstantissimæ indolis filios, hostiarum more, aris admotos, potiundæ victoriæ causâ, nefariâ litatione mactavit.* Another king slew nine sons, in order to prolong his own life; in hopes, I suppose, that, what they were abridged of, would in great measure be added to himself. Such instances however occur not often: but the common victims were without end. Adam Bremensis, speaking of the awful grove at Upsal, where these horrid rites were celebrated, says, that there was not a single tree, but what was reverenced, as if it were gifted with some portion of divinity: And all this, because they were stained with gore, and foul with human putrefaction. *Lucus tam sacer est gentilibus, ut singulæ arbores ejus ex morte vel tabo immolatorum divinæ videantur.* The same is observed by Scheiffer in his account of this place. *Deorum sacer ille lucus erat: in arboribus singulis Dii ipsi habitare credebantur: ergo ad earum ramos corpora illa, veluti munera quædam Diis gratissima, suspendebant.*

The manner, in which the victims were slaughtered, was diverse in different places. Some of the Gaulish nations chined them with a stroke of an ax. The Celtæ placed the man, who was to be offered for a sacrifice, upon a block, or an altar, with his breast upwards; and with a sword struck him forcibly across the *sternum*: them tumbling him to the ground, from his agonies and convulsions, as well as from the effusion of blood, they formed a judgment of future events. The Cimbri ripped open the bowels; and from them they pretended to divine. In Norway they beat mens brains out with an ox yoke. The same operation was performed in Iceland, by dashing them against an altar of stone. In many places they transfixed them with arrows. After they were dead, they suspended them upon the trees, and left them to putrify. One of the writers, above quoted, mentions, that in his time, seventy carcases of this sort were found in a wood of the Suevi. Dithmar of Mersburgh, an author of nearly the same age, speaks of a place called Ledur in Zeeland, where there were every year ninety and nine persons sacrificed to the god Swantowite. During these bloody festivals a general joy prevailed; and banquets were most royally served. They fed; they caroused; and gave a loose to indulgence, which at other times was not permitted. *Dum sacrificia hæc peragebantur, varii adhibiti sunt ritus, et litationis modi: convivia celebrata magnifica: pars sanguinis postibus illita: pars adstantibus propinata.* They imagined, that there was something my-

myſterious in the number nine; for which reaſon theſe feaſts were in ſome places celebrated every ninth year; in others every ninth month; and continued for nine days. When all was ended, they waſhed the image of the deity in a pool; on account, I ſuppoſe, of its being ſtained with blood; and then diſmiſſed the aſſembly. Their ſervants were numerous, who attended during the term of their feaſting, and partook of the banquet. At the cloſe of all, they were ſmothered in the ſame pool, or otherwiſe made away with. On which Tacitus remarks, how great an awe this circumſtance muſt neceſſarily infuſe into thoſe who were not admitted to theſe myſteries: *Arcanus hinc terror, ſacra ignorantia, quid ſit illud, quod tantùm perituri videbant.*

Theſe accounts are handed down from a variety of authors in different ages: many of whom were natives of the countries, which they deſcribe; and to which they ſeem ſtrongly attached. They would no therefore have brought ſo foul an imputation on the part of the world, in favour of which they were each writing; nor could there be that concurrence of teſtimony, were not the hiſtory in general true.

The like cuſtom prevailed to a great degree at Mexico, and even under the mild government of the Peruvians; and in moſt parts of America. In Africa it is ſtill kept up; where, in the inland parts they ſacrifice ſome of the captives taken in war to their Fetiches, in order to ſecure their favour. Snelgrave was in the king of Dahoome's camp, after his inroad into the countries of Ardra and Whidaw; and ſays, that he was a witneſs to the cruelty of this prince, whom he ſaw ſacrifice multitudes to the deity of his nation.

The ſacrifices, of which I have been treating, if we except ſome few inſtances, conſiſted of perſons doomed by the chance of war, or aſſigned by lot to be offered. But among the nations of Canaan, of whom I firſt ſpoke, the victims were peculiarly choſen. Their own children, and whatever was neareſt and deareſt to them, were deemed the moſt worthy offering to their god. The Carthaginians, who were a colony from Tyre, carried with them the religion of their mother country, and inſtituted the ſame worſhip in the parts where they ſettled. It conſiſted in the adoration of ſeveral deities, but particularly of Kronus; to whom they offered human ſacrifices; and eſpecially the blood of children. If the parents were not at hand to make an immediate offer, the magiſtrates did not fail to make choice of what was moſt fair and promiſing; that the god might not be defrauded of his dues. Upon a check being received in Sicily, and ſome other alarming circumſtances happening, Himilcar without any heſitation laid hold of a boy, and offered him on the ſpot to Kronus; and at the ſame time drowned a number of prieſts, to appeaſe the deity of the ſea. The Carthaginians another time, upon a great defeat of their army by Agathocles, imputed their miſcarriages to the anger of this god, whoſe ſervices had been neglected. Touched with this, and ſeeing the enemy at their gates, they ſeized at once two hundred children of the prime nobility, and

and offered them in public for a ſacrifice. Three hundred more, being perſons who were ſome how obnoxious, yielded themſelves voluntarily, and were put to death with the others. The neglect, of which they accuſed themſelves, conſiſted in ſacrificing children, purchaſed of parents among the poorer ſort, who reared them for that purpoſe; and not ſelecting the moſt promiſing, and the moſt honourable, as had been the cuſtom of old. In ſhort, there were particular children brought up for the altar, as ſheep are fattened for the ſhambles; and they were bought, and butchered in the ſame manner. But this indiſcriminate way of proceeding was thought to have given offence. It is remarkable, that the Egyptians looked out for the moſt ſpecious and handſome perſon to be ſacrificed. The Albanians pitched upon the beſt man of the community, and made him pay for the wickedneſs of the reſt. The Carthaginians choſe what they thought the moſt excellent, and at the ſame time the moſt dear to them; which made the lot fall heavy upon their children. This is taken notice of by Silius Italicus in his fourth book:

Mos erat in populis, quos condidit advena Dido,
Poſcere cæde Deos veniam, et flagrantibus aris,
Infandum dictu! parvos imponere natos.

Kronus, to whom theſe ſacrifices were exhibited, was an oriental deity, the god of light and fire; and therefore always worſhipped with ſome reference to that element. The Carthaginians, as I have obſerved, firſt introduced him into Africa. He was the ſame as the Orus of the Egyptians, and the Alorus of the eaſtern nations. That the name given him originally by the Greeks was Koronus, is manifeſt from a place in Crete, which was ſacred to him, and is mentioned by the name Coronis. It is ſaid, that both the chief city, and the adjacent country, were thus denominated; and that theſe ſacrifices were there offered, which we know were peculiar to Kronus. Εν δε τη νυν Σαλαμινι, προτερον Κορωνιδι ονομαζομενη, μηνι κατα Κυπριους, Αφροδισιῳ, εθυετο ανθρωπος Αγραυλῳ, τη Κεκροπος και νυμφης Αγραυλιδος. If this place, which was conſecrated to him (as is apparent by theſe offerings), was called Koronis; it is plain, that his name muſt have been rendered by the Greek Koronus: and both are a tranſpoſition for Kon-Orus, or Chon-Orus, "the lord Orus," or אור. He was univerſally adored in Cyprus; but particularly in this part, which Porphyry ſuppoſes to have been Salamis. This is evident from Diodorus Siculus, who mentions a city Ouranie here. He makes it indeed diſtinct from Salamis; but places it hard by, between that city and Carpaſia; where the river Chour (the Ouc Our of the Phenicians, and the Courium, Κυριον, of the Greeks) runs at this day. The Greeks thought Kronus was the ſame as Χρονος: but it was an oriental name; and the etymology was to be looked for among people of thoſe parts.

Βηλος επ' Ευφρηταο, Λιβυς κεκλημενος Αμμων,
Ασσυριοις Ζευς.
Ασσυριοις Ζευς, Αραψ ΚΡΟΝΟΣ, Ασσυριοις Ζευς.

The

The Greeks, we find, called the deity, to whom theſe offerings were made, Agraulos; and feigned that ſhe was a woman, and the daughter of Cecrops. But how came Cecrops to have any connection with Cyprus? Agraulos is a corruption, and tranſpoſition of the original name, which ſhould have been rendered *Uk El Aur*, or *Uk El Aurus*; but has, like many other oriental titles and names, been ſtrangely ſophiſticated; and is here changed to Agraulos. It was in reality the god of light; the Orus and Alorus, of whom I have ſaid ſo much, who was always worſhipped with fire. This deity was the Moloch of the Tyrians and Canaanites, and the Melech of the eaſt; that is, the great and principal god, the god of light, of whom fire was eſteemed a ſymbol; and at whoſe ſhrine, inſtead of viler victims, they offered the blood of men.

Such was the Kronus of the Greeks, and the Moloch of the Phenicians: and nothing can appear more ſhocking, than the ſacrifices of the Tyrians, and Carthaginians, which they performed to this idol. In all emergencies of ſtate, and times of general calamity, they devoted what was moſt neceſſary and valuable to them, for an offering to the gods, and particularly to Moloch. But beſides theſe undetermined times of bloodſhed, they had particular and preſcribed ſeaſons every year, when children were choſen out of the moſt noble and reputable families, as I have before mentioned. If a perſon had an only child, it was the more liable to be put to death, as being eſteemed more acceptable to the deity, and more efficacious of the general good. Thoſe, who were ſacrificed to Kronus, were thrown into the arms of a molten idol, which ſtood in the midſt of a large fire, and was red with heat. The arms of it were ſtretched out, with the hands turned upwards, as it were to receive them; yet ſloping downwards, ſo that they dropt from thence into a glowing furnace below. To other gods they were otherwiſe ſlaughtered; and, as it is implied, by the very hands of their parents. What can be more horrid to the imagination, than to ſuppoſe a father leading the deareſt of all his ſons to ſuch an infernal ſhrine? or a mother, the moſt engaging and affectionate of her daughters, juſt riſing to maturity, to be ſlaughtered at the altar of Aſhteroth or Baal? Juſtin deſcribes this unnatural cuſtom very pathetically. *Quippe homines, ut victimas immolabant; et impuberes (quæ ætas hoſtium miſericordiam provocat) aris admovebant: pacem ſanguine eorum expoſcentes, pro quorum vitâ Dii rogari maxime ſolent.* Such was their blind zeal, that this was continually practiſed; and ſo much of natural affection ſtill left unextinguiſhed, as to render the ſcene ten times more ſhocking, from the tenderneſs which they ſeemed to expreſs. They embraced their children with great fondneſs; and encouraged them in the gentleſt terms, that they might not be appalled at the ſight of the helliſh proceſs: begging of them to ſubmit with chearfulneſs to this fearful operation. If there was any appearance of a tear riſing, or a cry unawares eſcaping; the mother ſmothered it with her kiſſes: that there might not be any ſhow of back-

backwardneſs, or conſtraint: but the whole be a free-will-offering. *Blanditiis, et oſculo comprimente vagitum, ne flebilis hoſtia immoletur.* Theſe cruel endearments over, they ſtabbed them to the heart, or otherwiſe opened the ſluices of life; and with the blood warm, as it ran, beſmeared the altar, and the grim viſage of the idol. Theſe were the cuſtoms, which the Iſraelites learned of the people of Canaan; and for which they are upbraided by the Pſalmiſt. "They did not deſtroy the nations, concerning whom the Lord commanded them: but were mingled among the heathen, and learned their works. Yea, they ſacrificed their ſons and their daughters unto devils, and ſhed innocent blood, even the blood of their ſons and of their daughters, whom they ſacrificed unto the idols of Canaan: and the land was polluted with blood. Thus were they defiled with their own works, and went a whoring with their own inventions."

Theſe cruel rites, practiſed in ſo many nations, made Plutarch debate with himſelf, "whether it would not have been better for the Galatæ, or for the Scythians, to have had no tradition or conception of any ſuperior beings, than to have formed to themſelves notions of gods, who delighted in the blood of men; of gods, who eſteemed human victims the moſt acceptable and perfect ſacrifice? Would it not," ſays he, "have been more eligible for the Carthaginians to have had the atheiſt Critias, or Diagoras, their lawgiver at the commencement of their polity, and to have been taught, that there was neither god, nor dæmon, than to have ſacrificed, in the manner they were wont, to the god which they adored? Wherein they acted, not as the perſon did, whom Empedocles deſcribes in ſome poetry, where he expoſes this unnatural cuſtom. The fire there with many idle vows offers up unwittingly his ſon for a ſacrifice; but the youth was ſo changed in feature and figure, that his father did not know him. Theſe people uſed, knowingly and wilfully, to go through this bloody work, and ſlaughter their own offſpring. Even they, who were childleſs, would not be exempted from this curſed tribute; but purchaſed children at a price of the poorer ſort, and put them to death with as little remorſe as one would kill a lamb, or a chicken. The mother, who ſacrificed her child ſtood by without any ſeeming ſenſe of what ſhe was loſing, and without uttering a groan. If a ſigh did by chance eſcape, ſhe loſt all the honour which ſhe propoſed to herſelf in the offering; and the child was notwithſtanding ſlain. All the time of this celebrity, while the children were murdering, there was a noiſe of clarions and tabors ſounding before the idol; that the cries and ſhrieks of the victims might not be heard. "Tell me now," ſays Plutarch, "if the monſters of old, the Typhons, and the giants, were to expel the gods, and to rule the world in their ſtead; could they require a ſervice more horrid, than theſe infernal rites and ſacrifices?"

Of

Of the Chaldeans, and their original. From the same.

I Have shewn, that the distinction made by Africanus, Eusebius, and others, between Chaldean and Arabian kings, is void of all foundation: and, were the list, that they produce, genuine, it would determine the point against them. All that can be esteemed true in the series they produce, is the names of those who are foremost in the list. And, however mistaken they may have been in those that follow; yet, setting them aside, we may learn, in respect to the Chaldeans, what was the opinion of these writers, and what tradition had taught them; that Ham, Chus, and Nimrod were the heads of this nation. And as the Chaldeans were the most ancient inhabitants of the country called by their name; there are no other principals, to whom we may refer their original. They seem to have been the most early constituted, and settled, of any people upon earth: And from their situation it appears, and from every other circumstance, that Chus was the head of their family, and Nimrod their first king. They seem to have been the only people, that did not migrate at the general dispersion: and the center of their province was at Ur, not far from the conflux of the Tigris and Euphrates. From hence they extended themselves under the names of Cuseans and Arabians, as far as Egypt west, and eastward to the Ganges; occupying to the south all the Asiatic sea-coast, and the whole of the large continent of Arabia: And from thence they passed the Erythrean gulf, and penetrated into Ethiopia. They were continually incroaching upon those that were nearest to them; and even trespassed upon their own brotherhood. In process of time they got full possession of Egypt, and the whole coast of Africa upon the Mediterranean even to the Atlantic ocean, as far as Fez and Taffilet: and are to be found within the tropics almost as low as the Gold coast. Upon the Gambia is the king of Barsally, of Arabian extraction, as are all the Phooley nations; who retain their original language, and are of the religion of Mahomet. One of these, Job Ben Solomon by name, was not many years since in England. He had been unjustly seized on by a prince, his neighbour, and carried to America, where he was sold for a slave: but writing an affecting account of his misfortune in his native tongue, it raised the curiosity, as well as pity, of some persons of consequence in these parts; who redeemed him, and sent for him over; and having shewn him singular marks of favour, at his request dispatched him to his own country.

Memoirs of Richard Plantagenet, (a natural son of king Richard III.) who died 22 Dec. 1550. (4 Edw. VI.) In a letter from Dr. Thomas Brett, to Dr. William Warren, president of Trinity-hall.

Dear Will,

* * * * NOW for the story of Richard Plantagenet. In the year 1720, (I have forgot the particular day, only remember it

it was about Michaelmas) I waited on the late lord Heneage, earl of Winchelſea, at Eaſtwell-houſe and found him ſitting with the regiſter of the pariſh of Eaſtwell lying open before him. He told me, that he had been looking there to ſee who of his own family was mentioned in it. But, ſays he, I have a curioſity here to ſhow you. And then ſhewed me, and I immediately tranſcribed it into my almanack, "Richard Plantagenet was buryed "the 22d daye of December, *anno* "*ut ſupra. Ex Regiſtro de Eaſtwell,* "*ſub anno*, 1550." This is all the regiſter mentions of him; ſo that we cannot ſay, whether he was buried in the church or church yard; nor is there now any other memorial of him, except the tradition in the family, and ſome little marks where his houſe ſtood. The ſtory my lord told me was this:

When Sir Thomas Moyle built that houſe, (Eaſtwell place) he obſerved his chief bricklayer, whenever he left off work, retired with a book. Sir Thomas had curioſity to know what book the man read; but was ſome time before he could diſcover it; he ſtill putting the book up if any one came toward him. However, at laſt, Sir Thomas ſurprized him, and ſnatched the book from him; and looking into it, found it to be Latin. Hereupon, he examined him, and finding he pretty well underſtood that language, he enquired, how he came by his learning? Hereupon, the man told him, as he had been a good maſter to him, he would venture to truſt him with a ſecret he had never before revealed to any one. He then informed him, That he was boarded with a Latin ſchoolmaſter, without knowing who his parents were, till he was fifteen or ſixteen years old; only a gentleman (who took occaſion to acquaint him he was no relation to him) came once a quarter, and paid for his board, and took care to ſee that he wanted nothing. And, one day, this gentleman took him, and carried him to a fine great houſe, where he paſſed through ſeveral ſtately rooms, in one of which he left him, bidding him ſtay there.

Then a man finely dreſt, with a ſtar and garter, came to him; aſked him ſome queſtions, talked kindly to him, and gave him ſome money. Then the fore-mentioned gentleman returned and conducted him back to his ſchool.

Some time after, the ſame gentleman came to him again, with a horſe and proper accoutrements, and told him, he muſt take a journey with him into the country. They went into Leiceſterſhire, and came to Boſworth-field; and he was carried to king Richard III's tent. The king embraced him, and told him he was his ſon. "But, child," ſays he, "to-morrow I muſt fight for my crown. And, aſſure yourſelf, if I loſe that, I will loſe my life too: but I hope to preſerve both. Do you ſtand in ſuch a place, (directing him to a particular place) where you may ſee the battle, out of danger. And when I have gained the victory, come to me; I will then own you to be mine, and take care of you. But, if I ſhould be ſo unfortunate as to loſe the battle, then ſhift as well as you can, and take care to let nobody know that I am your father; for no mercy will be ſhewed to any one ſo nearly related to me."

me." Then the king gave him a purſe of gold, and diſmiſſed him.

He followed the king's directions. And, when he ſaw the battle was loſt, and the king killed, he haſted to London, ſold his horſe and fine cloaths; and the better to conceal himſelf from all ſuſpicion of being ſon to a king, and that he might have means to live by his honeſt labour, he put himſelf apprentice to a bricklayer. But, having a competent ſkill in the Latin tongue, he was unwilling to loſe it; and having an inclination alſo to reading, and no delight in the converſation of thoſe he was obliged to work with, he generally ſpent all the time he had to ſpare in reading by himſelf.

Sir Thomas ſaid, "You are now old, and almoſt paſt your labour; I will give you the running of my kitchen as long as you live." He anſwered, "Sir, you have a numerous family; I have been uſed to live retired; give me leave to build a houſe of one room for myſelf, in ſuch a field, and there, with your good leave, I will live and die." Sir Thomas granted his requeſt; he built his houſe, and there continued to his death.

I ſuppoſe (tho' my lord did not mention it) that he went to eat in the family, and then retired to his hut. My lord ſaid, that there was no park at that time; but when the park was made, that houſe was taken into it, and continued ſtanding till his (my lord's) father pulled it down. "But," ſaid my lord, "I would as ſoon have pulled down this houſe;" meaning Eaſtwell-place.

I have been computing the age of this Richard Plantagenet when he died, and find it to be about 81. For Richard III. was killed Auguſt 23, 1485, which ſubtracted from 1550, there remains 65; to which add 16 (for the age of Richard Plantagenet at that time) and it makes 81. But, though he lived to that age, he could ſcarce enjoy his retirement in his little houſe above two or three years, or a little more. For I find by Philpot, that Sir Thomas Moyle did not purchaſe the eſtate of Eaſtwell till about the year 1543 or 4. We may therefore reaſonably ſuppoſe, that, upon his building a new houſe on his purchaſe, he could not come to live in it till 1546; but that his workmen were continued to build the walls about his gardens, and other conveniences off from the houſe: and till he came to live in the houſe, he could not well have an opportunity of obſerving how Richard Plantagenet retired with his book: ſo that it was probably towards the latter end of the year 1546, when Richard and Sir Thomas had the fore-mentioned dialogue together. Conſequently, Richard could not build his houſe, and have it dry enough for him to live in, till the year 1547. So that he muſt be 77 or 78 years of age before he had his writ of eaſe. * * * I am,

Dear Brother Will,

Your humble ſervant,

THO. BRETT.

Spring Grove,
Sept. 1, 1733.

The teſtimony of Clement Maydeſtone, that the body of king Henry IV. *was thrown into the Thames, and not buried at Canterbury. Tranſlated from a Latin manuſcript in the library of Bene't college, Cambridge,* M.IV.XCVIII.

THIRTY days after the death of Henry IV. one of his domeſtics came to the houſe of the Holy Trinity, in Hounſlow, and dined there. And as the by-ſtanders were talking at dinner-time of that king's irreproachable morals, this man ſaid to a certain eſquire, named Thomas Maydeſtone, then ſitting at table, "Whether he was a good man or not, God knows; but of this I am certain, that when his corpſe was carried from Weſtminſter towards Canterbury, in a ſmall veſſel, in order to be buried there, I and two more threw his corpſe into the ſea, between Berkengum and Graveſend. And (he added with an oath) we were overtaken by ſuch a ſtorm of winds and waves, that many of the nobility, who followed us in eight ſhips, were diſperſed, ſo as with difficulty to eſcape being loſt. But we, who were with the body, deſpairing of our lives, with one conſent threw it into the ſea; and a great calm enſued. The coffin in which it lay, covered with cloth of gold, we carried with great ſolemnity to Canterbury, and buried it. The monks of Canterbury therefore ſay, that the tomb [not the body] of Henry IV. is with us. As Peter ſaid of holy David, Acts xi."

As God Almighty is my witneſs and judge, I ſaw this man, and heard him ſwear to my father, Thomas Maydeſtone, that all the above was true.

CLEMENT MAYDESTONE.

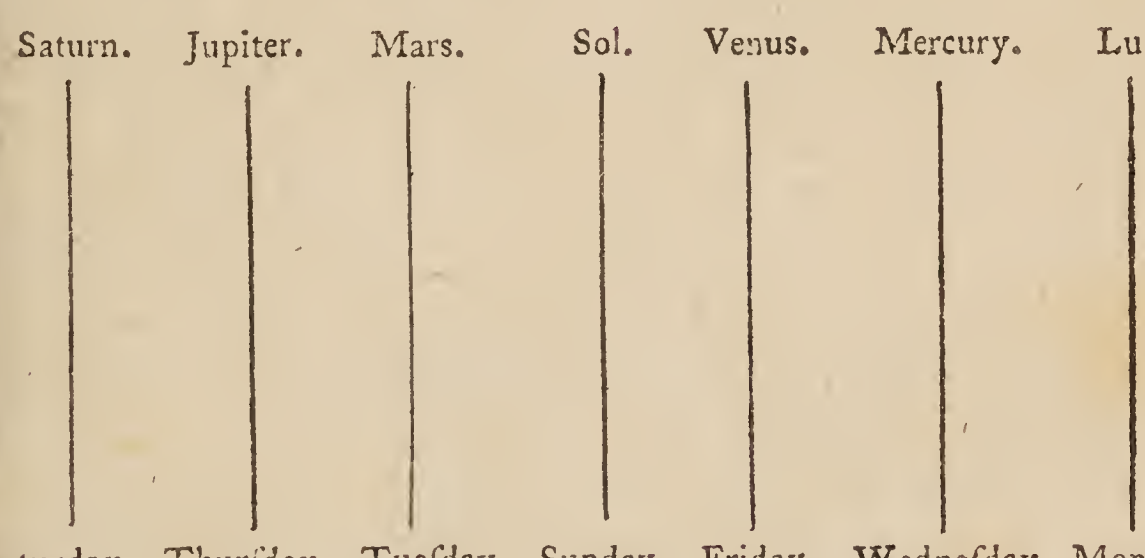
Of muſical ſounds; and of the origin of the names of the days of the week. From the connexion of the Roman, Saxon, and Engliſh Coins. By William Clarke, M. A.

IT was diſcovered by obſervation and experience, that there was in nature only ſeven different notes, or ſounds, or, as the poet calls them, "ſeptem diſcrimina vocum;" that every octave was a repetition of the ſame note, only higher or lower. This truth, myſterious as it truly is, could not be ſuffered to paſs (ſuch is the vanity of human nature) without ſome explication; and therefore was ſoon reſolved into another myſtery, viz. that theſe ſeven muſical notes were the expreſſions of the ſame tones, which the ſeven planets made in the different ſpheres or revolutions. Pythagoras introduced this new principle into the old Greek philoſophy. Macrobius thinks he was the author of it: but Quintilian does not ſcruple to affirm, that it was taken from the tradition of more ancient times. However this was, it was a prevailing opinion among the old philoſophers, eſpecially the Pythagoreans. Among them, a man would have been thought to have had no muſic in his ſoul, who had diſputed this fundamental principle. Macrobius ſpeaks of it as riſing almoſt to demonſtration. "Ex his inexpugnabili ratione collectum eſt, muſicos ſonos de ſphaerarum cœleſtium converſione procedere."

The

The ancient planetary ſyſtem was an unſettled thing: it differed often, as the dark conjectures of their philoſophers furniſhed a variety of opinions without fixing upon one. But it appears from great authorities, that one of the moſt popular and prevailing opinions was that which was afterwards called the Ptolemaic. The earth was the centre, and then the reſt of the planets in this order: firſt the Moon, then Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. As there were ſeven plants, the lyre had for this reaſon ſeven ſtrings: it was formed upon this plan to expreſs the harmony of the heavens. Varro calls the planetary ſyſtem "mobilem divûm lyram." And Quintilian takes it for granted, that the world was the great original from which the lyre was taken: "mundum ipſum ejus ratione compoſitum eſſe, quam poſtea ſit lyra imitata." One of the ancient muſicians ſays, that Mercury, the inventor of the old ſeven-ſtringed lyre, fitted it up and turned it in imitation of thoſe ſpheres which the planets moved in.

Let us now come to Dion Caſſius. What he ſays upon the ſubject amounts to this: That calling the days of the week by the names of the ſeven planets was a cuſtom taken from the Egyptians; and, though not of very ancient date, was then become familiar among the Romans, and received among all nations: that this diſtribution of the days was owing to the muſic of the ancients. One of their moſt celebrated tunes was the Diateſſaron; and ſtriking the ſtrings of the lyre, as that tune directed, would aſſign the days of the week to each planet, juſt in that order in which they are now ranged. There is no explaining this well, without giving a ſcheme of it. The planets in the order of the old Ptolemaic ſyſtem ſtood thus:



The planets diſtributed by the Diateſſaron thus:

7 5 3 1 6 4 2

or, Sunday, Monday, Tueſday, Wedneſday, Thurſday, Friday, Saturday, juſt as we place the days of the week.

In playing this tune upon the lyre, Dion indeed ſays, that you ſtruck the outermoſt ſtring, or Saturn, firſt; then every fourth ſtring incluſive in their order. But it appears by the old muſicians, that there were ſeveral ways of beginning this tune, and that you might ſet off from different ſtrings. In reckoning the days of the week, they plainly began with the fourth: and it is allowed by the judges of muſic, that ſtriking the firſt ſtring laſt would make the compoſition more harmonious.

Dion's obſervation about the antiquity of this cuſtom ſeems to be as well grounded. He ſays, that the ancient Greeks knew nothing of it. It is certain, that the univerſal reception of it among the Greeks and Romans could not be long before his time. Ovid would ſcarce have loſt an opportunity of embelliſhing his Faſti with the ſtory of ſome of theſe hebdomadary deities, if this had been the uſual practice in that age. Reckoning the month, and conſequently the year, by weeks, was very ancient. Philo and Joſephus aſſure us, that this diſtribution of time was univerſally received among all nations.

The practice of aſſigning each day of the week to a particular deity, was, as Herodotus informs us, an invention of the Egyptians: from thence it came by ſlow advances into Italy and Rome. Moſt of the Egyptian cuſtoms had been long held in great contempt by the Romans: but after Veſpaſian had aſſumed the purple, and eſtabliſhed himſelf in the empire, they began to be more faſhionable at court. This invention, whenever it was received there, came from thence to our anceſtors the Saxons; and is one inſtance, among many others, of their great diſpoſition to imitate the Roman cuſtoms.

ESSAYS.

Thoughts on the Cauſes and Conſequences of the preſent high Price of Proviſions.

Privatus illis cenſus erat brevis
Commune magnum.

THE high price of proviſions, and all the neceſſaries of life, is an evil ſo inconvenient to all conditions of men, and ſo intolerable to ſome, that it is not ſurpriſing that all ſhould ſuffer it with much diſcontent, and many be drove by it into deſpair, or into riots, rapine, and all kinds of diſorders. The latter, indeed, we cannot but expect, if we conſider, that the enemies of all government and ſubordination, ſo numerous in this country, will not fail to avail themſelves of this favourable opportunity, to ſpread univerſal diſſatisfaction, and inflame the minds of the people to ſeek redreſs by ſuch infamous and dangerous methods. This they endeavour, too ſucceſsfully, to effect, by daily repreſenting in the public papers that this calamity ariſes from the artifices of monopolizers, regraters, foreſtallers, and engroſſers, encouraged, or at leaſt connived at, by miniſters deſirous of oppreſſing the people, and parliaments inattentive to their complaints. It is hard to ſay, whether the ignorance of theſe writers, or their malevolence, is ſuperior; or, whether the abſurdity of their principles, or the miſchief of them, is the greateſt; but one may venture to affirm, that our people, notwithſtanding the preſent ſcarcity, are ſtill better fed than taught. This undoubtedly makes it neceſſary, at this time, that the true cauſes of this evil ſhould be explained to them; which, if it leſſens not their wants, may in ſome meaſure abate their ill-founded indignation.

To this end I ſhall endeavour to ſhew, as conciſely as poſſible, that the preſent high price of proviſions ariſes principally from two ſources; the increaſe of our national debts, and the increaſe of our riches; that is, from the poverty of the public, and the wealth of private individuals. From what cauſes theſe have been increaſed, and what have been the effects of that increaſe, ſhall be the ſubject of the few following pages.

It will ſurely be unneceſſary to inquire into the cauſes of the late immenſe increaſe of our national debt; whoever remembers the many millions annually borrowed, funded, and expended, during the laſt war, can be under no difficulty to account for its increaſe. To pay intereſt for theſe new funds, new taxes were every year im-

poſed, and additional burthens laid on every comfort, and almoſt every neceſſary, of life, by former taxes, occaſioned by former wars, before ſufficiently loaded. Theſe muſt unavoidably increaſe the prices of them, and that in a much greater proportion than is uſually underſtood: for a duty laid on any commodity does not only add the value of that duty to the price of that commodity, but the dealer in it muſt advance the price double or treble times that ſum; for he muſt not only repay himſelf the original tax, but muſt have compenſation for his loſſes in trade by bad debts, and loſs of intereſt by his increaſed capital. Beſides this, every new tax does not only affect the price of the commodity on which it is laid, but that of all others, whether taxed or not, and with which at firſt ſight it ſeems to have no manner of connection. Thus, for inſtance, a tax on candles muſt raiſe the price of a coat, or a pair of breeches; becauſe, out of theſe, all the taxes on the candles of the wool-comber, weaver, and the taylor, muſt be paid: a duty upon ale muſt raiſe the price of ſhoes; becauſe from them all the taxes upon ale drank by the tanner, leather-dreſſer, and ſhoemaker, which is not a little, muſt be refunded. No tax is immediately laid upon corn, but the price of it muſt neceſſarily be advanced; becauſe, out of that, all the innumerable taxes paid by the farmer on windows, ſoap, candles, malt, hops, leather, ſalt, and a thouſand others, muſt be repaid: ſo that corn is as effectually taxed, as if a duty by the buſhel had been primarily laid upon it; for taxes, like the various ſtreams which form a general inundation, by whatever channels they ſeparately find admiſſion, unite at laſt, and overwhelm the whole. The man, therefore, who ſold ſand upon an aſs, and raiſed the price of it during the late war, though abuſed for an impoſition, moſt certainly acted upon right reaſons; for, though there were no new taxes then impoſed either on ſand or aſſes, yet he found by experience that, from the taxes laid on almoſt all other things, he could neither maintain himſelf, his wife, or his aſs, as cheap as formerly; he was therefore under a neceſſity of advancing the price of his ſand, out of which alone all the taxes which he paid muſt be refunded. Thus, I think, it is evident beyond all doubt, that the increaſe of taxes muſt increaſe the price of every thing, whether taxed or not; and that this is one principal cauſe of the preſent extraordinary advance of proviſions, and all the neceſſaries of life.

The other great ſource from whence this calamity ariſes, is certainly our vaſt increaſe of riches; the cauſes and conſequences of which I will now briefly conſider. That our riches are in fact amazingly increaſed within a few years, no one, who is in the leaſt acquainted with this country, can entertain a doubt: whoever will caſt his eyes on our public works, our roads, our bridges, our pavements, and our hoſpitals, the prodigious extenſion of our capital, and in ſome proportion that of every conſiderable town in Great Britain; whoever will look into the poſſeſſions and expences of individuals, their houſes, furniture, tables,

tables, equipages, parks, gardens, cloaths, plate, and jewels, will find every where round him ſufficient marks to teſtify to the truth of this propoſition. This great increaſe of private opulence is undoubtedly owing to the very ſame cauſe which increaſed our national debt; that is, to the enormous expences, and unparalleled ſucceſs, of the late war; and indeed very much ariſes from that very debt itſelf. Every million funded is in fact a new creation of ſo much wealth to individuals, both of principal and intereſt; for the principal, being eaſily transferable, operates exactly as ſo much caſh; and the intereſt, by enabling ſo many to conſume the commodities on which taxes are laid for the payment of it, in a great meaſure produces annually an income to diſcharge itſelf. Of all the enormous ſums then expended, little, beſides the ſubſidies granted to German princes, was loſt to the individuals of this country, though the whole was irrecoverably alienated from the public: all the reſt annually returning into the pockets of the merchants, contractors, brokers, and ſtock-jobbers, enabled them to lend it again to the public on a new mortgage the following year. Every emiſſion of paper-credit, by bank-notes, exchequer and navy bills, ſo long as they circulate, anſwers all the purpoſes of ſo much additional gold and ſilver as their value amounts to. If we add to theſe the immenſe riches daily flowing in, ſince that period, from our commerce, extended over every quarter of the globe, from the new channels of trade opened with America, and the amazing ſums imported from the Eaſt-Indies, it will not ſure be difficult to account for the opulence of the preſent times, which has enabled men to increaſe their expences, and carry luxury to a pitch unknown to all former ages.

The effects of this vaſt and ſudden increaſe of riches are no leſs evident than their cauſe: the firſt and moſt obvious effect of the increaſe of money is the decreaſe of its value, like that of all other commodities; for money being but a commodity, its value muſt be relative, that is, dependant on the quantity of itſelf, and the quantity of the things to be purchaſed with it. In every country where there is great plenty of proviſions, and but little money, there proviſions muſt be cheap; that is, a great deal of them will be exchanged for a little money: on the contrary, where there are but little proviſions in proportion to the number of conſumers, and a great plenty of money, or what paſſes for money, there they will inevitably be dear; that is, a great deal of money muſt be given to purchaſe them. Theſe effects muſt eternally follow their cauſes, in all ages and in all countries; and that they have done ſo, the hiſtory of all countries in all ages ſufficiently informs us. The value of money at the time of the Norman conqueſt was near twenty times greater than at preſent; and it has been gradually decreaſing from that period, in proportion as our riches have increaſed: it has decreaſed not leſs than one third during the preſent century; and I believe one half at leaſt of that third ſince the commencement of the laſt war: which, I doubt not, could it be

exactly computed, would be found to be in due proportion to the increaſe of its quantity, either in real or fictitious caſh; and that the price of proviſions is advanced in the ſame proportion during the ſame period.

The increaſe of money does not only operate on the price of proviſions by the diminution of its own value, but by enabling more people to purchaſe, and conſequently to conſume them: which muſt unavoidably likewiſe increaſe their ſcarcity, and that muſt ſtill add more to their price. Twenty rich families will conſume ten times as much meat, bread, butter, ſoap, and candles, as twenty poor families conſiſting of the ſame number; and the prices of all theſe muſt certainly riſe in proportion to the demand. This effect of the increaſe of wealth, in many countries of Europe, is very viſible at this day, and in none more than in the northern parts of this iſland; who, having of late acquired riches by the introduction of trade, manufactures, and tillage, can now well afford to eat roaſt beef, and therefore conſume much of thoſe cattle, with which they were formerly glad to ſupply us; and will not part with the reſt but at prices greatly advanced. The conſumption of every thing is alſo amazingly increaſed from the increaſe of wealth in our metropolis, and indeed in every corner of this kingdom; and the manner of living, throughout all ranks and conditions of men, is no leſs amazingly altered: the merchant, who formerly thought himſelf fortunate, if, in a courſe of thirty or forty years, by a large trade and ſtrict œconomy, he amaſſed together as many thouſand pounds, now acquires in a quarter of that time double that ſum, or breaks for a greater, and vies all the while with the firſt of our nobility in his houſes, table, furniture, and equipage: the ſhopkeeper, who uſed to be well contented with one diſh of meat, one fire, and one maid, has now two or three times as many of each; his wife has her tea, her card-parties, and her dreſſing-room; and his 'prentice has climbed from the kitchen-fire to the front-boxes at the play-houſe. The loweſt manufacturer and meaneſt mechanic will touch nothing but the very beſt pieces of meat, and the fineſt white bread; and if he cannot obtain double the wages for being idle, to what he formerly received for working hard, he thinks he has a right to ſeek for a redreſs of his grievances by riot and rebellion. Since then the value of our money is decreaſed by its quantity, our conſumption increaſed by univerſal luxury, and the ſupplies which we uſed to receive from poorer countries, now alſo grown rich, greatly diminiſhed, the preſent exorbitant price of all the neceſſaries of life can be no wonder.

From what has been here offered, I think this may be readily accounted for, without having recourſe to foreſtallers, regraters, engroſſers, monopolizers, higglers, badgers, bounties, poſt-chaiſes, turnpike-roads, enlarging of farms, and the extenſion of the metropolis, with all that ridiculous catalogue of cauſes which have been aſſigned by eſſay-writers to this evil, and frequently adopted by the abſurdity of their readers. How far all or any of theſe have

have accidentally, collaterally, or locally contributed to augment the price of provisions, I cannot determine, nor do I think it of much importance to inquire; because I am satisfied, whatever may have been their effects, they could have had none at all, had they not been assisted by the first and great cause, the increase of riches; for no artifices of traders can make their commodities dear in a poor country; that is, sell things for a great deal of money, where there is little to be found. It seems therefore to no purpose to search out for causes of the present high price of provisions from facts whose operations are uncertain, and reasons at best but speculative, when it is sufficiently accounted for from these two great principles, the increase of taxes, and the increase of riches; principles as absolutely indisputable, and as demonstrable, as any mathematical problem.

I shall now make some cursory observations and short conclusions on the principles here advanced, which, allowing these to be true, can admit of no doubt. First then, although the price of provisions is at present very high, they cannot with propriety be said to be dear. Nothing is properly dear, except some commodity which, either from real or fictitious scarcity, bears a higher price than other things in the same country at the same time. In the reign of Henry II. the value of money was about fifteen times greater than in the present age; a fowl then was sold for a penny, which cannot now be bought under fifteen pence: but fowls are not for that reason dearer now than they were at that time; because one penny was then earned with as much labour, and when earned would fetch as much of every thing at market, as fifteen will in these days: was the value of money now as great, and the price of other things as small, as in those times, and provisions bore the same price as at present, they would then be dear indeed, and the pamphleteers would have good reason to impute their dearness to the frauds of engrossers and monopolizers; but as the price of every thing besides, of houses, furniture, cloaths, horses, coaches, fees, perquisites, and votes, are all equally advanced; nay, as every pamphlet, which used to be sold for one shilling, has now inscribed on its title-page Price Eighteen Pence, their own works are a confutation of their arguments; for nonsense is a commodity in which there are too many dealers ever to suffer it to be monopolized or engrossed. It is certainly therefore improper to say that provisions are dear; but we should rather affirm, what is the real fact, that money is cheap: and if the complainants would use this expression instead of the other, and at the same time consider that this arises from the success of our arms and the extension of our trade, I am persuaded that, if they were not less distressed, they would certainly be less dissatisfied; and would perhaps by degrees comprehend, that, in a country engaged in expensive wars and successful commerce, there must be heavy taxes and great riches; and that, where there are taxes and riches, there the prices of provisions, and all other things, must be high, in spite of all the efforts of ministers or parliaments, who ought

ought by no means to be blamed for not effecting impoſſibilities, and counteracting the nature of things.

Secondly, this cheapneſs of money in its conſequences affects different conditions of men in a very different manner: to ſome it operates exactly in the ſame manner as real dearneſs and ſcarcity, at the ſame time that to others it gives conſiderable advantages. All thoſe who ſubſiſt on ſettled ſtipends muſt inevitably be ruined by it: merchants, and traders of all kinds are greatly benefited; but the labourer and the land-owner are moſt grievouſly oppreſſed. Thoſe who ſubſiſt on ſettled ſtipends muſt be ruined; becauſe, if their incomes cannot be advanced in proportion to the decreaſe of the value of money, and the conſequent increaſe of the prices of every thing, the ſame nominal ſum which would afford affluence in one age, will not prevent ſtarving in another; of which we have numerous examples in our ſchools, colleges, alms-houſes, and other charitable foundations. Merchants and traders are conſtantly gainers by it; becauſe they can always raiſe the prices of whatever they deal in, faſter than the value of money decreaſes: but the labourer, having nothing to ſubſiſt on but his daily work, muſt ever be behind-hand in advancing the price of his labour: becauſe he is not able to wait till it acquires its due proportion of value, and therefore by it he muſt ſuffer extremely. The land-owner likewiſe cannot raiſe his rents in any proportion to the fall of the value of money; becauſe the charges of cultivation, the family-expences of the occupiers, and the maintenance of an increaſing poor, all burthens inſeparable from his land, muſt all riſe in proportion to that fall; and theſe muſt perpetually retard his progreſs. The price of labour and of land muſt by degrees advance, as money decreaſes in value; but, as theſe are the laſt that will feel its effects, the labourer muſt, in the mean time, be miſerably pinched, and the land owner dreadfully impoveriſhed by it. This is not ſpeculation, but a fact which is too well verified by experience at this time, through every part of this kingdom, where the labourer, with his utmoſt induſtry, cannot now procure a belly-full for himſelf and his family; and, notwithſtanding all the late improvements in agriculture, the very ſame eſtates in land which formerly maintained a large family in ſplendor and hoſpitality, can now ſcarce repair and pay window-tax for a ſpacious manſion-houſe, and ſupply the owner of it with the neceſſaries of life. When I hear a merchant, contractor, or broker, calling out for war, arguing for new loans and new taxes, I wonder not, becauſe I know that they are enriched by them, and I know alſo that they have ſagacity enough to know it too: but when I hear a landed gentleman talk the ſame language, when I ſee him eager for war, which muſt involve him in new diſtreſſes, encouraging loans, whoſe intereſt he muſt pay, pleading for taxes, which muſt lie an eternal mortgage upon his eſtate, exulting in acquiſitions of territories and commerce, which muſt daily increaſe his expences, and diminiſh his income, and triumphing in victories which muſt undo him, I own I am ſurpriſed,

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but at the same time rejoice to find, that, in this enlightened age, there is ignorance still left amongst us, sufficient to produce so disinterested a patriot.

Lastly, from the foregoing premises one consequence evidently appears, which seems to have escaped the sagacity of our wisest politicians, which is, that a nation may, nay must inevitably be ruined, who every year increases her debts, notwithstanding her acquisitions by conquest or commerce bring in double or treble the sums which she is obliged to borrow; and this by a chain of causes and consequences, which the efforts of no human power or wisdom are able to disunite. New debts require new taxes; and new taxes must increase the price of provisions: new acquisitions of wealth, by decreasing the value of money, still aggravate this evil, and render them still dearer; this dearness of provisions must augment the price of labour; this must advance the price of all manufactures; and this must destroy trade; the destruction of trade must starve the poor, expel the manufacturers, and introduce universal bankruptcy, riot, and confusion. Artificers of all kinds will, by degrees, migrate into cheaper countries: the number of clergy, whose education must grow more expensive, and incomes less valuable, will be insufficient for parochial duty: the pay of navies and armies must be augmented, or they will no longer defend a country which cannot maintain them; but rather themselves become her internal and most dangerous enemies.

From what has been here said, I think it plainly appears, that the present exorbitant price of provisions, and all the necessaries of life, chiefly arises from the increase of our taxes, and of our riches; that is, from public poverty and private opulence, the fatal disease which has put a period to all the greatest and most flourishing empires of the world: their destructive effects have been sufficiently known in all ages; but the remedy successfully to be applied to them, is yet a secret. No acquisition of foreign wealth can be effectual for this purpose: was our whole national debt to be at once paid off, by the introduction of all the treasures of the East, it would but accelerate our destruction; for such a vast and sudden influx of riches would so enhance our expences, and decrease the value of money, that we should at once be overwhelmed with luxury and want. The most concise method of cure would be to take superabundant wealth from individuals, and with it discharge the debts of the public; but here justice, liberty, and law, would obstruct our progress with insurmountable difficulties. Whoever therefore would attempt this salutary, but arduous undertaking, must not begin by extirpating engrossers and regraters, nor by destroying rats and sparrows, those great forestallers of the public markets; but by gradually paying off that debt, not only by œconomy, but by the most avaricious parsimony, and as far as possible, by narrowing those channels, through which riches have flowed in such torrents into the pockets of private men: he must be deaf to all mercantile application for opening new in-

inlets of commerce at the public expence: he muſt boldly reſiſt all propoſitions for ſettling new colonies upon parliamentary eſtimates; and moſt carefully avoid entering into new wars: in ſhort, he muſt obſtinately refuſe to add one hundred thouſand pounds to the national debt, though by that means millions could be introduced thro' the hands of individuals. How far theſe meaſures are practicable, or conſiſtent with the honour, dignity, or even advantage of this country in other reſpects, I cannot determine; but this I will venture to affirm, that by no others this calamity, ſo loudly and ſo juſtly at this time complained of, can ever be redreſſed.

By what has been here thrown out, I would by no means be underſtood to mean to diſcourage the legiſlature from inquiring into abuſes, of which I doubt not but there are many, and applying to them the moſt efficacious and ſpeedy remedies; much leſs to diſapprove the ſalutary meaſures they have already taken to redreſs this evil, the wiſeſt, and perhaps the only ones which are practicable for that end. I propoſe only to leſſen the unreaſonable expectations many have formed of their ſucceſs, and the indignation conſequent from their diſappointment; and to ſtem a little thoſe torrents of abſurdities, with which one is over-whelmed in all companies, both male and female. Every politician at a coffee-houſe has a noſtrum for this diſeaſe, which he pronounces infallible; and abuſes adminiſtration for not immediately adopting it. Projectors every day hold forth ſchemes unintelligible and impracticable; for not executing which, government is arraigned; the ignorant ſupport them, the factious make uſe of them, and oppoſitions knowing what it is to be hungry, pathetically bewail the miſeries of the poor. The dowager at the quadrille-table inveighs loudly againſt the cruelty of parliament, for diſregarding the voice of the people, and ſuffering proviſions to continue at ſo exorbitant a price; calls a king; and if ſhe happens to be beaſted, grows more outrageous againſt the miniſtry; while the ſilent old general, her unfortunate partner, in three ſentences recommends military execution on all butchers, bakers, poulterers, and fiſhmongers, as the moſt equitable and moſt effectual remedy. Were theſe impertinences productive of no miſchief, they would be only ridiculous, and unworthy of a ſerious confutation; but as

Hæ nugæ ſeria ducunt
In mala;

they tend to deceive, to diſappoint, and to exaſperate the minds of the vulgar, and to leave thoſe of their betters diſcontented, and diſſatisfied with government; whatever ſhall explain the true and fundamental cauſes of this calamity to the people, and give ſome check to the nonſenſe, which is every where wrote, talked, and propagated on this ſubject, is an attempt which may render great and important ſervice both to the ſocial and the political world.

An eſſay upon theatrical imitation; extracted from the dialogues of Plato, by J. J. Rouſſeau, *(Tranſlated from a vol. of* Rouſſeau's *works newly publiſhed.)*

THE more I reflect upon the eſtabliſhment of our imaginary republic, the more ſtrongly it appears to me, that we have preſcribed for it laws that are uſeful and appropriated to the nature of man. I find, in particular, that it was neceſſary to give, as we have done, ſome bounds to the licences of poets, and to forbid their uſing any part of their art that relates to imitation. We will now, if you pleaſe, reſume this ſubject; and in the belief that you will not inform againſt me to thoſe dangerous enemies, I will acknowledge that I look upon all dramatic writers, as the corruptors of the people. For whoever letting themſelves be amuſed by their images, are incapable of receiving them in their real point of light, or of giving theſe fables ſuch correction as they require. Whatever reſpect I entertain for Homer, their model and firſt maſter, I do not think I owe more to him than I do to truth; and in order to begin by ſecuring it to me, I ſhall endeavour to trace what is imitation.

To imitate a thing, an idea muſt be formed. This idea is abſtract, abſolute, ſole, and independant of the number of copies of this thing which may exiſt in nature. This idea is always antecedent to its execution: ſo the architect who builds a palace, hath the idea of a palace before he ſets about building it. He does not conſtruct the model he follows, and this model was previouſly in his mind.

Confined by his art to this ſingle ſubject, this artiſt is only capable of making this, or other palaces ſimilar: but there are ſome that are much more univerſal, who produce all that can be executed by any workman whatever in the world; all that is produced by nature, all that can be rendered viſible in heaven, upon earth, in hell, even the gods themſelves. You comprehend that theſe marvellous artiſts are painters, and indeed, the moſt ignorant of men can do the ſame with a looking-glaſs, You will tell me that the painter does not make theſe things but only their images; the workman does no more who really fabricates them, as he copies a model that exiſts before him.

I there ſee three palaces very diſtinct. Firſt, the original model, or idea, that exiſted in the mind of the architect, in nature, or at leaſt in it's author, with all the poſſible ideas of which it is the ſpring. Secondly, the palace of the architect, which is the image of this model; and ~~at length~~ the palace of the painter, which is the image of that of the architect. Thus God, the architect, and the painter, are the authors of theſe three palaces. The firſt palace is the original idea, exiſting of itſelf; the ſecond is the image of this; the third is the image of the image, or what we properly call imitation. Hence it follows, that imitation, does not, as it is imagined, hold the ſecond rank, but the third in the order of beings; and that no image being exact and perfect, imitation is always at a ſtill more diſtant degree from truth, than it is believed.

The architect may conſtruct ſeveral palaces upon the ſame model; the

the painter draw ſeveral pictures from the ſame palace: but as to the type, or original model, it is ſingular, for if there were two which reſembled each other, they would be no longer original; they would have an original model common to both, and that alone would be the real type. All what I have ſaid here of painting is applicable to theatrical imitation; but before we deſcend to this, let us examine a little cloſer the imitations of the painter.

He does not only confine his imitations in his pictures to the images of things, that is, the ſenſible productions of nature, and the works of art; but he does not even endeavour to give an exact and true repreſentation of the object, but the appearance. He paints it as it ſeems to be, and not as it really is; he paints it in one ſingle point of view; and this point of view being the choice of his own will, he renders, according as he pleaſes, the ſame object agreeable, or deformed, to the eyes of the ſpectator. Wherefore it does not depend upon them to judge of the thing imitated, in itſelf; but they are compelled to judge of it upon certain appearances, and as it pleaſes the imitator; they often judge by mere habit, and there are arbiters even in imitation *.

* Experience evinces that the fineſt harmony does not flatter an ear that is not prepoſſeſſed in its favour; that nothing but cuſtom renders concord agreeable, and makes us diſtinguiſh it from the moſt diſſonant intervals. As to the ſimplicity of the connection, upon which it has been endeavoured to lay the baſis of the pleaſure of harmony, I have ſet forth in the Encyclopediæ, under the word Conformance, that this principle is not to be maintained, and I think it is eaſy to prove all our harmony is a barbarous, gothic invention, which has, only by the extent of time, become an imitative art. A ſtudious magiſtrate, who at his leiſure hours, inſtead of going to hear muſic, amuſes himſelf to fathom its ſyſtems, has diſcovered that the ſimilitude of a fifth is only as two to three by approximation, and that this ſimilitude is ſtrictly incommenſurable. No one at leaſt can deny its being ſo upon our harpſichords, by virtue of the modification, which does not prevent theſe fifths, thus modified, to appear agreeable to us. Now, in ſuch a caſe, where is the ſimplicity of the connection which ſhould render them fifths? We are not yet certain whether our ſyſtem of muſic is not founded upon mere conventions; neither do we know, whether, or not, the principles are entirely arbitrary; or whether another ſyſtem, ſubſtituted in its place, would not by cuſtom equally pleaſe us. This queſtion is diſcuſſed in another place. By a pretty natural analogy, theſe reflections might excite others upon the ſubject of painting, as the ſtyle of a picture, the agreement of colours, certain parts of the deſign, which are more arbitrary than is generally believed, and where imitation itſelf muſt ſubmit to the rules of convention. Why dare not painters attempt ſome new imitations, which have nothing againſt them but their novelty, and which, on the other hand, ſeem to ſpring from the art? For example, it is only a play for them to make a plain ſurface appear in relief; how comes it then that none amongſt them have endeavoured to give the appearance of a plain ſurface to a relief? If they make a flat ceiling appear vaulted, why do not they make a vaulted one appear flat? ſhades, they will ſay, change appearances, at various points of view, which is not the caſe with plain ſurfaces. Let us remove this difficulty, and deſire a painter to paint and colour a ſtatue in ſuch a manner as to appear flat, even, and of the ſame colour, without any deſign, in only one light, and a ſingle point of view. Theſe obſervations would not, perhaps, be unworthy the conſideration of the enlightened virtuoſo, who has reaſoned ſo well upon the art.

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The art of repreſenting objects is very different from that of making them known. The firſt pleaſes without inſtructing; the latter inſtructs without pleaſing. The artiſt who draws a plan and takes exact dimenſions, does nothing that is very agreeable to the ſight; wherefore his work is ſought for only by artiſts: but he who traces a perſpective, flatters the multitude and the ignorant, becauſe he teaches them nothing, and offers them only the appearance of what they knew before. Add to this, that menſuration ſupplying us with ſucceſſive dimenſions, gradually teaches us the truth of things; whereas appearance preſents us with all at once, and with the opinion of a greater extent of underſtanding, the ſenſes are flattered by the ſeduction of ſelf-love.

The repreſentations of the painter, deſtitute of all reality, do not produce this appearance, but by the aſſiſtance of ſome trifling ſhades, and ſome ſlight reſemblance, which he impoſes for the thing itſelf. If there were any mixture of truth in his imitations, he ſhould be acquainted with the object that he imitates; he ſhould be a naturaliſt, a workman, a phyſician, before he were a painter. But, on the contrary, the extent of his art is founded only in his ignorance, and the only reaſon he paints, is, becauſe he has no occaſion for any knowledge. When he offers us a meditating philoſopher, an aſtronomer ſtudying the planets, a geometrician drawing ſections; a turner at work; does he thereby know how to work, to calculate, to meditate, to obſerve the planets? not in the leaſt; he only knows how to paint. Incapable of giving a reaſon for any of the things that are in his picture, he doubly impoſes upon us by his imitations, as well in offering us a vague and fictitious appearance, the fault of which, neither he nor we can diſtinguiſh, as by uſing falſe meaſures to produce this appearance; that is to ſay, by changing all the real dimenſions according to the laws of perſpective; ſo that if the ſenſes of the ſpectator are not deceived, but view the picture as it really is, he will be impoſed upon, as to the appearance of things repreſented, or elſe will find them all fictitious. The illuſion will nevertheleſs be ſuch, that fools and children will be impoſed upon, and fancy they ſee objects which the painter himſelf is unacquainted with, and workmen whoſe art he knows nothing of.

Let us from this example ſuſpect thoſe people who are ſo univerſal, who are proficients in every art, adepts in every ſcience, who know every thing, reaſon upon every thing, and ſeem to unite in themſelves alone the talents of all mankind. If any one ſhould tell us he is acquainted with ſuch a wonderful man, aſſure him, without heſitation, that he is the dupe to the impoſitions of a quack, and that all the knowledge of this great philoſopher, hath no other foundation than the ignorance of his admirers, who cannot diſtinguiſh error from truth, nor imitation from the thing imitated.

This leads us to an examination of tragic writers; and Homer, their chief. For ſeveral aver, that a tragic poet ſhould know every thing; that he ſhould have fathom-

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ed the depths of virtue and vice, policy and morality, laws both divine and human, and that he ſhould have a knowledge of every thing that he introduces, or elſe he will never produce any thing that is good. Let us then enquire whether thoſe who raiſe poetry to this point of ſublimity, are not themſelves impoſed upon by the imitative poets *; whether their admiration for theſe immortal works do not prevent their ſeeing how diſtant they are from truth, and being ſenſible that they are colours without conſiſtency, mere phantoms and ſhadows, and that to delineate ſuch images, nothing is leſs neceſſary than the knowledge of truth; or if there be indeed any real utility in all this, or if the poets in effect know that multiplicity of things, of which the vulgar fancy they ſpeak ſo well.

Tell me, my friends, if any one had this choice, to poſſeſs his miſtreſs's picture or the original, which do you think he would prefer? if an artiſt could equally produce the thing imitated, or its likeneſs, would he chuſe the latter in objects of any price; and would he content himſelf with the picture of a houſe, when he could actually conſtruct himſelf a real one? If then the tragic poet was really acquainted with thoſe things he pretends to paint, if he had the qualities he deſcribes, if he knew himſelf how to do what he makes the dramatis perſonæ perform, would he not exerciſe their talents? would he not practiſe their virtues? would he not ſooner erect monuments to his own glory than theirs? and would he not rather chuſe to perform himſelf worthy actions, than to confine himſelf to the praiſe of others? certainly his merit in this caſe would be quite different; there is no reaſon to be aſſigned why having the power to do the moſt, he ſhould do the leaſt. But what muſt we think of him who would teach us, what he could not himſelf learn? and who would laugh to ſee a group of ideots go to admire all the ſprings of policy, and the human heart brought into play by a rattle twenty years of age, to whom the moſt ſenſeleſs of the audience would not truſt with the leaſt part of their buſineſs?

Let us lay aſide what relates to talents and arts. When Homer talks ſo well of the knowledge of Machaon, do not call him to account for his own about the ſame matters. Let us not deſire to know the patients he has cured, the pupils he has trained to phyſic, his maſterpieces of engraving and chaſing, the workmen he has formed, or the monuments of his induſtry. Let us ſuffer him to teach us all this, without knowing whether he is himſelf inſtructed in it. But when he entertains us with wars, government, laws, ſciences, which require the greateſt length of ſtudy, and which are the moſt immediately connected with the happineſs of man, dare we interrupt him a moment thus to interrogate him? oh divine Homer! we admire your leſſons; and ſhall not heſitate to follow them, as ſoon as

* It was the common opinion of the ancients, that all the tragic writers were only the copyiſts, and the imitators of Homer. Some one ſaid of the tragedies of Euripides: theſe are the fragments of Homer's repaſt, which are carried home by a gueſt.

we ſee how you yourſelf practiſed them: if you be really what you take ſo much pains to appear; if your imitations do not hold the third rank, but the ſecond after truth, let us ſee in yourſelf the model which you depict in your works; ſhew us the captain, the legiſlator, the ſage, whoſe portraits you ſo boldly diſplay to us. Greece and all the world celebrate the good actions of great men who poſſeſſed thoſe ſublime arts, whoſe precepts coſt you ſo little. Lycurgus gave laws to Sparta, Charondas to Sicily and Italy, Minos to Crete, Solon to us. Is the object the duties of life, the wiſe government of the houſe, the conduct of a citizen in every ſtation. Thales of Miletta, and the Scythian Anacharſis furniſhed at once precepts and examples. Are theſe ſame duties to be taught to others, and philoſophers and ſages to be inſtituted who practiſe what they have been taught? this was the taſk of Zoroaſter to the Magii, Pythagoras to his diſciples, Lycurgus to his fellow-citizens. But you, Homer, if it be true, that you have excelled in ſo many parts; if it be true that you can inſtruct men and render them better; if it be true that you unite knowledge with imitation, and learning to words; let us ſee thoſe works that evince your abilities, the ſtates that you have inſtituted, the virtues which do you honour, the battles you have gained, the riches that you have acquired. How comes it that you have not ſecured crowds of friends, that you have not been beloved and honoured by all the world? how could it happen that you attracted none but the ſingle Cleophilus? and even here you only nouriſhed ingratitude. What! a Protagoras of Abdera, a Prodicee of Chio, without iſſuing from a private ſimple life, to convene their cotemporaries around them, to perſuade them to learn from them alone the art of governing their country, their families, and themſelves; and yet ſuch wonderful men as a Heſiod, and a Homer, who knew every thing, who could teach every thing to men of their time, to be ſo neglected by them as to wander and beg throughout the univerſe, chanting their verſes from city to city like vile ballad-ſingers! In thoſe barbarous ages, when the preſſure of ignorance began to be felt, when the want and avidity of knowledge concurred to render every man a little more enlightened than others, uſeful and reſpectable; if theſe had been as learned as they appeared to be, if they had poſſeſſed all the qualities which they ſo pompouſly blazoned, they would have paſſed for prodigies; they would have been ſought for by every one; all would have eagerly puſhed forward to have ſeen them, to poſſeſs, to keep them and diſplay their hoſpitality towards them; and thoſe who could not have fixed their reſidence with them, would rather have followed them all over the earth, than to have loſt ſo ſcarce an opportunity to be inſtructed, and become ſuch heroes as thoſe they admired *.

* Plato does not ſay that a man who is ſtudious of his intereſt and verſed in lucrative matters, cannot, by the ſale of poetry or other means, obtain a great fortune,

Let us then agree that all poets, to begin by Homer, do not repreſent us in their pictures the model of virtuous talents, and the qualities of the ſoul, nor the other objects of the underſtanding and ſenſes which they have not in themſelves, but the images of all theſe objects drawn from foreign objects, and that they do not approach nearer to truth in this, when they offer us the features of a hero or a captain, than a painter who, depicting a geometrician or a workman, who does not conſider the art, which he is entirely unacquainted with, but only the colours and figure. Thus are names and words illuſive to thoſe, who, ſenſible of rhyme and harmony, let themſelves be charmed by the enchanting art of poetry, and yielding to ſeduction by the attraction of pleaſure, inſomuch that they take the images of objects that are unknown, both by them and their authors, for the objects themſelves, and fearful of being diſabuſed of an error which flatters them, either by impoſing upon their ignorance, or by thoſe agreeable ſenſations with which this error is accompanied.

In effect, diveſt the moſt brilliant of theſe pictures of the charms of verſe and the foreign ornaments which embelliſh them; ſtrip them of the colouring of poetry and ſtyle, and leave nothing but the deſign, and with difficulty you will remember it, or if it can be recollected, it will no longer pleaſe, reſembling thoſe children rather pretty than handſome, who embelliſhed with nothing but the flower of youth, loſe with it all their graces, without having loſt any of their features.

Not only the imitator or author of repreſentation is unacquainted with any thing but the appearance of the thing imitated; but a real knowledge of this thing does not belong even to him who made it. I ſee in this picture thoſe horſes which drew Hector's car; theſe horſes have harneſſes, bits and reins; the ſilverſmith, the blackſmith, the ſadler, produced theſe different things, the painter has repreſented them; but, neither the workman who is acquainted with them, nor the painter who delineates them, knows what they ſhould be; it is the equerry or their leader who determines their form by their uſe; it is he alone that can judge whether they are good or bad, and is able to correct their faults. Thus, in every poſſible inſtrument, there are three practical objects to be conſidered, namely the uſe, the conſtruction, and the imitation. Theſe two latter arts evidently depend upon the firſt, and there is nothing imitable in nature, to which the ſame diſtinctions are not applicable.

If the utility, goodneſs, and beauty of an inſtrument, an animal, or an action, relate to the uſe that may be derived from it; if it belong only to him who ſets it in motion to give its model, and to judge if this model be faithfully executed; the imitator is ſo far

fortune. But there is a great difference between enriching oneſelf and becoming illuſtrious by the trade of a poet, and the enriching oneſelf and being illuſtrious by the talents which the poet pretends to teach. It is true, that we might inſtance to Plato the example of Tirtæus; but he acquitted himſelf with diſtinction, and was rather conſidered as an orator than a poet.

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from being capable of pronouncing upon the qualities of the things that he imitates, that this decision does not even belong to him who made them. The imitator follows the workman whose work he copies, the workman follows the artist who knew how to apply the object which he alone can appreciate as well as its imitation. This confirms, that the pictures of poets and painters hold only the third rank after the first model, or truth.

But the poet who has no other judges than an ignorant people whom he endeavours to please, how will he not disfigure the objects he represents to flatter them? He will imitate that which appears fine to the multitude, without being solicitous whether it is so in reality. If he despises valour, will he have an Achilles for his judge? If he paints artifice, will he have an Ulysses to reprehend him? Quite the contrary: Achilles and Ulysses will be his personages: Thersites and Dolon his spectators.

To this you will object, that the philosopher is himself equally ignorant of many of those arts upon which he speaks, and that he frequently extends his ideas as far as the poet doth his images. I agree: but the philosopher doth not pretend to be acquainted with truth, he is only in search of it: he examines, he discusses, he extends our views, he even instructs us whilst he deceives himself; he proposes his doubts as doubts, his conjectures as conjectures, and affirms nothing but what he knows. The philosopher who reasons, submits his reasons to our judgment; the poet, or imitator, arrogates to himself the province of a judge. In offering us his images, he affirms that they are conformable to truth; he is, therefore, obliged to be acquainted with it, if his art have any reality; in depicting every thing, he lays claim to a knowledge of every thing. The poet is the painter who displays the image; the philosopher is the architect who draws the plan; the one dare not even approach the object to delineate it, the other measures it before he chalks it out.

But that we may not be deceived by analogical errors, let us endeavour more distinctly to discover with what part, what faculty of our soul poetical imitations have any affinity; and let us previously consider whence arises the illusion of those of the painter. The same bodies seen at various distances do not appear of the same size, nor their figures equally sensible, nor their colours glowing with the same vivacity. When seen in water they change their appearance: that which was straight appears to be broken; the object seems to flow as with the wave; all the conformity of parts is altered when seen through a spherical or hollow glass; with the assistance of light and shade, a plain surface is either rendered convex or concave at the will of the painter; his pencil penetrates as deep as the chissel of the sculptor; and in those reliefs which he knows how to delineate upon canvass, the touch, deceived by the sight, leaves us doubtful by which we are to determine. All these errors are, doubtless, in the precipitate judgments of the mind. It is the weakness of the human

underſtanding, ever urged to judge without knowledge, that lays us open to all thoſe magical deceptions, whereby optics and mechanics abuſe our ſenſes. We conclude ſolely by appearance, from what we know, upon what we do not know; and our erroneous concluſions are the ſource of infinite illuſions.

What means are there to obviate theſe errors? diſquiſition and analyſis, ſuſpenſion of judgment, the art of menſuration, weighing, calculating, are the aids furniſhed to man to verify the reports of the ſenſes, that he may not judge of what is great or little, ſpherical or cubical, rare or compact, diſtant or near, by what appears ſo to be, but by what numbers, meaſure, and weight, aſcertain to be ſuch. Compariſon, judgment, the affinity diſcovered by theſe various operations, inconteſtably belong to the reaſoning faculty, and this judgment is often contradictory, with what the appearance of things would induce us to conclude. We have already ſeen that the ſame faculty of the ſoul cannot adduce contrary concluſions from the ſame things, conſidered in the ſame light. Hence it follows that it is not the moſt noble of our faculties, namely reaſon, but a different and inferior faculty, which judges according to appearance, and yields to the charm of imitation. This is what I meant before to expreſs, by ſaying that painting, and in general the imitative arts, exerted their influence very diſtant from truth, and by uniting with a part of our ſoul, deſtitute of prudence and reaſon, and incapable of itſelf, of having any knowledge of realities and truth. Thus the art of imitation, vile in its nature, and from the faculty of the ſoul upon which it actuates, muſt neceſſarily likewiſe be ſo by its productions; at leaſt with regard to the material ſenſe, which makes us judge of a painter's pictures. Let us now conſider the ſame art directly applied by the imitations of the poet to the internal ſenſe, that is, underſtanding.

The ſcene repreſents men acting voluntarily or by force, eſteeming their actions good or bad, according to the advantage or evil they expect to derive from them, and who are variouſly affected through them, with pain or pleaſure. Now, for the reaſons which have been already aſſigned, it is impoſſible that the man thus repreſented ſhould ever be conſiſtent with himſelf; and as the appearance and reality of ſenſible objects excite in him contrary opinions, in the ſame manner he eſtimates variouſly the objects of his actions, as they are diſtant or near, conformable or oppoſite to his paſſions; and his judgment, equally mutable as them, inceſſantly renders his deſires, his reaſon, his will, and all the powers of his ſoul, in a ſtate of contradiction.

The ſcene then repreſents to us all men, and even thoſe who are given to us as models, otherwiſe affected than they ought to be, to ſupport themſelves in a ſtate of moderation that is agreeable to them. Let a wiſe and courageous man loſe his ſon, his friend, his miſtreſs, in a word, the object the deareſt to his heart; we ſhall not ſee him give way to exceſſive and extravagant grief; and if human

man frailty will not allow him to ſurmount entirely his affliction, he will at leaſt aſſwage it by perſeverance; a juſt ſhame will make him conceal part of his affliction; and being compelled to appear in the world, he would bluſh to do and ſay in the preſence of mankind many things which he ſays and does alone. Unable to be in himſelf what he deſires, he endeavours at leaſt to appear to others what he ought to be. The cauſes of his trouble and agitation are grief and paſſion; what curb and contain him, are reaſon and law; and in theſe oppoſite emotions, his will ever declares for the latter.

In effect, reaſon requires us to ſupport adverſity patiently, that its weight ſhould not be aggravated by uſeleſs complaints; that human things ſhould not be eſtimated beyond their value; that we ſhould not by fears exhauſt thoſe powers, which ſhould ſoften it; and, in a word, that we ſhould ſometimes conſider it is impoſſible for a man to foreſee the future, and to be ſufficiently acquainted with himſelf, to know whether what happens to him is a good or an evil.

In this manner will a judicious prudent man behave, when he falls a prey to ill fortune. He will even endeavour to turn his croſſes to account, as a cunning gameſter endeavours to benefit by a bad hand that is dealt to him; and without lamenting like a fallen child who weeps upon the ſtone he fell againſt, he will know how to apply a ſalutary lancet to his wound, and by bleeding cure it. We muſt ſay therefore that conſtancy and perſeverance in diſgrace, are the works of reaſon; and that mourning, tears, deſpair, and groans, belong to a part of the ſoul oppoſite to the other; that this part is more debilitated daſtardly, and greatly inferior in dignity to the other.

Now it is from this ſenſible weak part that the affecting and variegated imitations, which we ſee upon the ſtage, are derived. The reſolute, prudent, and conſiſtent man is not ſo eaſily imitated; and if he were, the imitation being leſs variegated, it would not be ſo agreeable to the vulgar: they would be but little intereſted at an image, which did not reſemble their own, wherein they could diſcover neither their manners nor paſſions: the human heart being never ſtruck with objects that are entirely foreign to it. Wherefore the judicious poet, and the painter who has diſcovered the art of ſucceeding, by endeavouring to pleaſe the people and the vulgar part of mankind, takes care not to offer them the ſublime image of a heart, which is entirely maſter of itſelf, which liſtens only to the voice of wiſdom; but he charms the ſpectators by characters that are ever inconſiſtent, who will and will not, who make the theatre echo with cries and groans, who compel us to pity them, even when they do their duty, and think that virtue is a ſhocking thing, as it renders its votaries ſo miſerable. By theſe means, eaſy and variegated imitations enable the poet to move and flatter ſtill more the ſpectators.

This cuſtom of rendering thoſe perſons, whom we are made to love, ſubmit to their paſſions, alters and changes in ſuch a man-

ner our judgment upon laudable things, that we habituate ourſelves to honour a weakneſs of ſoul with the name of ſenſibility, and treat thoſe as obdurate men devoid of ſentiment in whom rigid duty conſtantly ſurmounts natural affections. On the contrary, we treat thoſe as amiable characters, who are lively affected at every thing, and are the perpetual plaything of events: thoſe who weep like women for the loſs of what was dear to them; thoſe who, through an inordinate friendſhip, are unjuſt to ſerve their friends; thoſe who are ignorant of any other rule but the blind diſpoſition of their heart; thoſe who are always praiſing the ſex who conquer them, and whom they imitate; thoſe who poſſeſs no other virtues than their paſſions, nor any other merit than their weakneſs. Thus equanimity, ſtrength, conſtancy, the love of juſtice, the empire of reaſon, inſenſibly become deteſtable qualities, vices which are decried; men make themſelves honoured, for what renders them worthy of contempt; and, this ſubverſion of ſound judgment is the inevitable conſequence of thoſe leſſons which are received at the theatre.

It is therefore with reaſon that we blame the imitations of the poet, and place them in the ſame rank as thoſe of the painter, as well on account of their being equally diſtant from truth, as becauſe they both equally flatter the ſenſible part of the ſoul, and, neglecting the rational, pervert the order of our faculties, and make us keep the beſt in ſubordination to the worſt. He who, in a republic, ſhould endeavour to make the good ſubmit to the wicked, and the lawful chiefs to the rebels, would be an enemy to his country and a traitor to the ſtate; yet the imitative poet introduces diſſenſions and death into the republic of the ſoul, by raiſing and nouriſhing the vileſt faculties at the expence of the nobleſt; by exerting and exhauſting his powers upon thoſe things the leaſt worthy of engaging them, by confounding in vague ſimilitudes the beautiful truth with the trappings of falſehood which pleaſes the multitude, and apparent grandeur with that which is real. Who can imagine themſelves poſſeſſed of ſufficient virtue to withſtand the poet's ſkill, which is exerted either to corrupt or diſcourage them? When Homer or ſome tragic author diſplays to us a hero overwhelmed with afflictions, weeping, lamenting, beating his breaſt; an Achilles, for inſtance, the ſon of a goddeſs, at one time ſtretched upon the earth, and heaping the burning ſand upon his head; at another, wandering like a madman upon the ſhore, and blending his dreadful outcries with the roaring of the waves; or a Priam, venerable for his dignity, for his great age, and his illuſtrious progeny, rolling in the mire, clotting his white hairs with dirt, the air echoing with his imprecations execrating alike gods and men; which among us can remain unmoved, or not feel a ſecret pleaſure in the deſcription? Is not the ſentiment repreſented as it were kindled within us? And do we not ſeriouſly applaud the author's art, and conſider him as a great poet, for the expreſſion he gives to his pictures, and the affections he communicates

cates to us? Nevertheleſs, when a domeſtic real calamity happens to us, we pride ourſelves upon bearing it with moderation, without ſhedding tears: we conſider the courage which we extort from ourſelves as a manly virtue, and we ſhould think ourſelves as puſillanimous as women, to weep and groan like theſe heroes who affected us upon the ſtage. Are not theſe very uſeful ſpectacles, whoſe examples we admire, and yet bluſh to imitate; where we intereſt ourſelves for weakneſſes, from which we guard ourſelves with ſo much difficulty in our own misfortunes? The moſt noble faculty of the ſoul, thus loſing its uſe and empire, habituates itſelf to ſink beneath the law of paſſions: no longer repreſſes our tears and moans; it gives us up to our tenderneſs for objects that are foreign to us; and, under pretence of chimerical calamities, ſo far from being ſhocked at a virtuous man giving way to exceſſive grief, ſo far from ſuppreſſing our applauſe at his abject behaviour, we even applaud ourſelves for the pity with which he inſpires us: it is a pleaſure we fancy we have obtained without weakneſs, and which we taſte without remorſe.

But in letting ourſelves be thus conquered by the grief of others, how ſhall we reſiſt the impulſe of our own; and how ſhall we more courageouſly ſupport our own ills than thoſe of which we have only a trifling repreſentation? What, ſhall our own ſenſibility alone eſcape us? Who is he that will not in adverſity adopt thoſe emotions, to which he ſo readily yields for others? Is there any one who can refuſe his own misfortunes thoſe tears, which he ſo bountifully ſhed for a ſtranger? As much may be ſaid of comedy, of the indecent laughter which it forces from us, of the habit which we imbibe of turning every thing into ridicule, even the moſt ſerious and graveſt objects; and of the almoſt unavoidable effect whereby it changes into theatrical buffoons and jeſters the moſt reſpectable citizens. Equally may we cenſure the love, the rage, and all other paſſions, which becoming daily more familiar to us as amuſement and paſtime, deprive us at length of all power of reſiſting them when they really aſſail us. In fine, let us conſider the ſtage and its imitations in whatever light we may, we conſtantly find that by animating and exciting in us thoſe diſpoſitions which we ſhould repreſs, they make that govern which ſhould obey; and ſo far from making us better or happier, they render us worſe and ſtill more unhappy, and make us purchaſe at our own expence, the attention we give to be pleaſed and flattered.

Wherefore, my friend Glaucus, when you meet with enthuſiaſtical admirers of Homer; when they tell you that Homer is the inſtitutor of Greece, and the maſter of all arts; that the government of ſtates, civil diſcipline, the education of mankind, and all the œconomy of human life, are taught in his writings; honour their zeal; love and ſupport them like men endowed with excellent qualities; admire with them the marvellous flights of this great genius; grant them with pleaſure that Homer is the moſt

excellent of all poets, the model and chief of all tragic writers. But let us ſtill remember that hymns in honour of the gods and the elogiums of great men, are the only kinds of poetry that ſhould be allowed in the republic; and that if we once allow this imitative muſe, who charms and deceives us by the ſoftneſs of her accents, the actions of men will no longer have for their object, either law, or any of thoſe things that are eſtimable, but grief and voluptuouſneſs; the excited paſſions will prevail inſtead of reaſon; citizens will no longer remain virtuous and juſt men, ever in obedience to duty and equity, but ſenſual weak men, who will conſider good and evil through no other medium than their own deſires. In a word, always remember, that in baniſhing from our ſtate dramatic and theatrical repreſentations, we do not purſue a barbarous prejudice; but that we give the preference to thoſe immortal beauties which reſult from the harmony of the ſoul, and the ſymmetry of the faculties.

Let us go ſtill farther. To guard againſt all partiality, and no way yield to that ancient diſcord which reigns between philoſophers and poets, let us take nothing from poetry and imitation that may be any way pleaded in their defence; nor from ourſelves thoſe innocent pleaſures which they may afford us. Let us ſo far honour truth as to reſpect even its image, and leave every one at liberty to be heard, who propoſes increaſing his fame by her. In impoſing ſilence upon the poets, let us allow their friends the privilege of defending them, and to ſhew us, if they can, that the art which we condemn as pernicious, is not only agreeable but uſeful to the republic and citizens. Let us liſten to their reaſons with an impartial ear, and heartily agree that we ſhall ourſelves be great gainers, if they prove that we may, without any riſk, yield to ſuch ſoft impreſſions; otherwiſe, my dear Glaucus, like a wiſe man ſtruck with the charms of his miſtreſs, finding his virtue ready to deſert him, break through with regret ſo ſoft a chain, ſacrifice love to duty and to reaſon: thus freed from our infancy of the ſeducing attractions of poetry, and though perhaps too ſenſible of its beauties, we will, however, furniſh ourſelves with ſtrength and reaſon againſt its deluſive influence: if we dare yield in any degree to that taſte which attracts us, we muſt at leaſt fear to give way to her firſt affection: we will therefore ſay to ourſelves that there is nothing ſerious or uſeful in dramatic pageantry, yet by liſtening ſometimes to poetry, we ſhall ſecure our hearts againſt its illuſions, as we will not ſuffer it to diſturb order or liberty, either in the interior republic of the ſoul, or in that of human ſociety. The alternative of becoming better or worſe, is not a trivial conſideration, for indeed it cannot be weighed with too much deliberation. Oh! my friends, it is, I muſt acknowledge, a delectable thing to yield to the charms of that bewitching talent which leads to riches, honours, power, and glory, but power, glory, riches, and even pleaſures, are all eclipſed

and

and vaniſh like a ſhadow, before juſtice and virtue.

The attention of the public having been greatly excited by the diſcovery ſaid to have been made by the Dolphin and others of his majeſty's ſhips, of a nation in South America, of a moſt extraordinary and gigantic ſize; and the government not having yet thought proper to admit an authentic publication of theſe diſcoveries; we imagine it may not be diſagreeable to our readers, to lay before them what former travellers have related of theſe remarkable people.

THESE people are firſt mentioned in the account of a voyage for new diſcoveries, undertaken by Magellan in the year 1519. The words in Harris's abridgment of this account are theſe: When they had croſſed the line, and the ſouth pole appeared above the horizon, they held on their ſouth courſe and came upon the Main of Braſil, about that part of it which lies in twenty-two degrees. They obſerved it to be all one continued tract of land, higher from the Cape St. Auguſtine, which is in this part of the country. Having made two degrees and an half more ſouth latitude, they fell in with a country inhabited by a wild ſort of people: They were of a prodigious ſtature, fierce and barbarous, made a horrible roaring noiſe, more like bulls than human creatures; and yet with all that mighty bulk were ſo nimble and light of foot that none of the Spaniards or Portugueſe could overtake them."

By this account giants appear to have been found in lat. 24½ ſouth; but upon referring to the map, the account appears to be erroneous, for Cape St. Auguſtine, which is ſaid to be in latitude 22, appears to be in latitude 10; ſo that it is doubtful whether the giants were found in latitude 12½, or 24½. If they were diſcovered after ſailing two degrees and an half ſouth from St. Auguſtine, they were found in 12½, if after ſailing two degrees and an half ſouth, from that part of the Main of Braſil, which lies in 22, they were found in 24 and an half. Such is the accuracy of Harris. The account, however, goes on.

"The next advance was to 49 degrees and an half ſouth latitude; here they were ſhut up by hard weather, and forced to take up their winter quarters for no leſs than five months. They for a long time believed the country to be uninhabited, but at length a ſavage of the neighbouring parts came up to give them a viſit; he was a briſk jolly fellow, merrily diſpoſed, ſinging and dancing all the way he came; being got to the haven, he ſtood there, and threw duſt upon his head, upon which ſome people went aſhore to him, who alſo throwing duſt upon their head, he came with them to the ſhip without fear or ſuſpicion. The head of one of Magellan's middle-ſized men reached but to his waiſt, and he was proportionably big; his body was formidably painted all over, eſpecially his face. A ſtag's horn was drawn upon each cheek, and great red circles round his eyes; his colours were otherwiſe moſtly yellow, only his hair was white. For his apparel

apparel, he had the ſkin of a beaſt clumſily ſowed together, but a beaſt as ſtrange as that was that wore it; every way unaccountable, neither mule, horſe, nor camel, but ſomething of every one, the ears of the firſt, the tail of the ſecond, and the ſhape and body of the laſt; it was one entire ſuit, all of one piece from head to foot; as his breaſt and back were covered with it above, ſo his legs and feet were wrapped up in it below. The arms that he brought with him were a ſtout bow and arrow: The ſtrings of the bow was a gut or ſinew of the beaſt whoſe ſkin covered him, and the arrows were tipped with ſharp ſtones.

Magellan, the admiral, made him eat and drink, and he enjoyed himſelf very comfortably till he happened to peep into a looking-glaſs that was given him among other trifles: This put him into a fright from which he could not eaſily recover, ſo that ſtarting back with violence, he threw two of the men who ſtood by him to the ground. This giant, however, fared ſo well, notwithſtanding his fright by the looking-glaſs, that the Spaniards had quickly the company of more; one in particular made himſelf mighty familiar, and ſhewed ſo much pleaſantry and good humour that the Europeans were greatly pleaſed with his company.

Magellan was deſirous of making ſome of theſe gigantic people priſoners, and with this view his crew filled their hands with toys and little things that pleaſed them; and in the mean time put iron ſhackles upon their legs; at firſt they thought them fine play-things as well as the reſt, and were pleaſed with their gingling ſound; but, when they found themſelves hampered and betrayed, they implored the aid of ſome ſuperior and inviſible being, by the name of Setebos; upon this occaſion their ſtrength appeared to be proportionable to their bulk, for one of them defeated the utmoſt efforts of nine men, and though they had him down, and tied his hands tightly, yet he freed himſelf from his bonds, and got looſe, in ſpite of all their endeavours to detain him. Their appetite is alſo in proportion to their ſtrength; the admiral gave them the name of Patagons, and took notice of the following words; bread, *capar*; water, *oli*; black, *amel*; red, *cheiche*; red cloth, *cherecai*. They tie up their hair, though it is ſhort, with a cotton lace. They have no fixed habitations, but certain moveable cottages, which they carry from place to place as their fancy leads them; theſe cottages are covered with the ſame ſkin that covers their bodies. A certain ſweet root, which they call by the name they give to bread, *capar*, is a conſiderable part of their food; what fleſh they eat is devoured raw.

They practiſe phyſic but in two articles, vomiting and phlebotomy, and both in a very extraordinary manner. To vomit, they thruſt an arrow a foot and half down the throat; and to bleed, they give the part affected, whether leg, arm, or face, a good chop with ſome ſharp inſtrument."

Such is the account of the Patagons, as given by Harris, who ſays he has taken the utmoſt pains to

give it in the cleareſt manner poſſible, by comparing all the different relations of the Portugueſe and Spaniſh writers; and it is to be hoped that no man can read the account of the violence and perfidy practiſed againſt theſe blameleſs, friendly, unſuſpecting people, without indignation. Harris, however, ſuffers it to paſs without animadverſions; and probably deſcribes this attempt of Magellan to betray the confidence of a reaſonable being, and to force him into exile and miſery, with as much phlegm as he would the ſnaring a tyger, or hooking a fiſh.

Magellan himſelf was afterwards killed in an hoſtile attempt to extort tribute from a king of Mathan, or Matahan, one of the Ladrone Iſlands, to which he had juſt as much right as the king of Mathan had to tribute from Spain.

The Patagons are next mentioned in an account of the voyage of Sir Francis Drake; but in Harris's epitome their ſtature is not particularly aſcertained. The paragraph relating to them being only as follows:

"In ſailing ſouth from the river of Plate, in latitude 36 S. they came to a good bay, in which were ſeveral pretty iſlands; the admiral being on ſhore in one of theſe iſlands, the people came dancing and leaping about him, and were very free to trade; they were a comely ſtrong-bodied people, very ſwift of foot, and of a briſk lively conſtitution; their faces were painted, and their apparel only a covering of the ſkins of beaſts, with the fur on, about their waiſts, and ſomething wreathed about their heads; they had bows an ell long, but no more than two arrows a-piece: They ſeemed not altogether ignorant of martial diſcipline, as appeared by their method of ordering and ranging their men. They were the nation which Magellan called Patagons."

The latitude of this iſland is not particularly mentioned; it muſt have been about 46 or 47. There is ſome difference in the accounts of their cloathing; Magellan ſays they were cloathed from head to foot; Drake, that they were covered only round the waiſt, and upon the head; but this may eaſily be accounted for, becauſe Magellan wintered with them, and Drake ſaw them in ſummer.

Theſe giants are next mentioned in an account of a voyage round the world, by Sir Thomas Cavendiſh: of which Harris's epitome is as follows:

"Sailing from Cape Frio, in the Braſils, they fell in upon the coaſt of America, in 47 d. 20 m. north, (it ſhould be ſouth) latitude. They proceeded to Port Deſire, in latitude 50. Here the ſavages wounded two of the company with their arrows, which are made of cane, headed with flints. A wild and rude ſort of creatures they were: and, as it ſeemed, of a gigantic race, the meaſure of one of their feet being 18 inches in length, which, reckoning by the uſual proportion, will give about 7 feet and an half for their ſtature." Harris ſays that this agrees very exactly with the account given of them by Magellan, but in his epitome of Magellan's account he ſays that the head of one of his middle-ſized men reached but to the Patagonian's waiſt; which, ſuppoſing Magellan's man to be but 5 feet 6 inches high, will make

make the Patagonian 9 at leaſt. He ſays, indeed, that Magellan gave them the name of Patagons, becauſe their ſtature was five cubits, or ſeven feet ſix; but, if ſo, his own account is inconſiſtent with itſelf, neither has he told us in what language Patagon expreſſes this ſtature.

Oliver Noort, the firſt Dutchman that attempted a voyage round the world, performed his expedition between the years 1598 and 1601; and the account he gives of the inhabitants of theſe parts, as abridged by Harris, is to the following effect:

"He went up the river at Port Deſire, and going on ſhore, found beaſts like ſtags and buffaloes, alſo ſome ſavages, who, he ſays, were tall portly men, painted, and armed with ſhort bows and arrows, that were headed with ſtone.

Theſe beaſts like buffaloes probably furniſhed the ſkins that Magellan deſcribed to have the ears of an aſs, the tail of a horſe, and the ſhape of a camel, for the buffalo has a bunch upon his back.

Having afterwards entered the Streights, they ſaw ſome men upon two iſlands, near a cape which is here called cape Naſſau. There is no cape marked either in the chart or map prefixed to Harris's collection by that name, nor has he told us to which of the capes that are marked this name was given by the Dutch. Theſe ſavages having now, by ſad experience, been taught to regard every European as an enemy, ſhook their weapons againſt the Dutch, in hopes to prevent their landing. The Dutch, however, did land upon one of the iſlands, and the poor Indians retreating, they purſued them to the cave which contained their wives and children, and killed every one of them. When theſe ruffians ruſhed in, the women covered their infants with their own bodies, that they might receive the firſt ſtab; the Dutch did not, indeed, murder theſe forlorn and defenceleſs wretches in cold blood, but having butchered the fathers and huſbands, they took away ſix of the children, four boys and two girls, and carried them on ſhipboard. It is impoſſible for any man, whoſe feelings of humanity have not been obtunded by ſelfiſhneſs or ſuperſtition, to read the accounts of the diſcoveries and ſettlements of the people of Europe, in other parts of the world, without regretting their ſucceſs, and wiſhing that they had all periſhed in the attempt. In theſe expeditions they have filled the earth with violence, and, as far as their influence could extend, diffuſed wickedneſs and miſery, by every violation of the laws of nature, that the moſt wanton cruelty and ſordid avarice could prompt, while they diſtinguiſhed themſelves from thoſe whom they deſtroyed, and enſlaved, by the name of Chriſtians, and gloried in the refinements of honour, which, looking down upon mere moral obligation, pretends to merit beyond the limits of duty.

One of the boys thus brought on board Van Noort's fleet, learnt the Dutch language, and gave intelligence to the following effect: that the inhabitants of the continent near the iſland from which he had been taken, were divided into different tribes; that three of theſe tribes, which he diſtin-

diſtinguiſhed by the names of Kemenetes, Kenekin, and Karaicks, were of the common ſize, but broader breaſted, and painted all over; and that there was another tribe, which he called Tiriminen, who were of a gigantic ſtature, being 10 or 12 feet high, and continually at war with the other tribes.

This boy gave an account of the cloathing and appearance of the inhabitants of this country, very different from thoſe already tranſcribed; for he ſaid the men wore their hair long, that the women were ſhaved, and that both went naked except a cloak of Penguin's ſkins, which reached to their waiſt.

Sebald de Weert, another Dutchman ſailed to the Streights of Magellan in the year 1598, and in his account are the following particulars. He detached two ſloops to an iſland near the mouth of the Streights, to catch ſea-dogs. When theſe ſloops came near the ſhore, they perceived ſeven canoes, with ſavages on board, that were ten or eleven feet high, of a reddiſh colour, and with long hair. They are farther deſcribed as being naked, except one who had a ſea-dog's ſkin about his ſhoulders; and it is remarkable that de Weert was on this coaſt in May, which is there a winter month.

In the account given of the voyage of George Spilbergen, we are told that on the coaſt of Terra del Fuego, which is to the ſouth of Magellan's Streights, his people ſaw a man of a gigantic ſtature, climbing the hills to take a view of the fleet, but, though they went on ſhore, they ſaw no other human inhabitant; they ſaw, however, ſeveral graves containing bodies of the ordinary ſize, or rather below it; and the ſavages they ſaw from time to time in canoes, appeared to be under ſix feet high.

In the hiſtory of the voyage of Capt. Cowley, an Engliſhman, which was undertaken in 1683, we have an account of giants indeed, but in a country very diſtant from Patagonia. In lat. 13 deg. 30 min. north, and about 143 eaſt longitude, lies the iſland of Guam, it is one of the Ladrone Iſlands, and was then in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, who had a governor and garriſon there. The Indian inhabitants of this iſland, Cowley ſays, were all well made, active, vigorous, and ſome of them ſeven feet and an half high. Capt. Cowley took, as he ſays, four of theſe infidels priſoners, which to be ſure, being himſelf a good Chriſtian, he had a right to do; and it appears by the ſequel of the account, that he treated them as other good Chriſtians had treated infidels which ſtrength or cunning had put into their power. "We brought them on board, ſays he, tying their hands behind them, but they had not been long there, before three of them leapt overboard into the ſea, ſwimming away from the ſhip with their hands bound behind them; we ſent a boat after them, and found that a ſtrong man at the firſt blow could not penetrate their ſkins with a cutlaſs. One of them had received, in my judgment, forty ſhots in his body before he died, and the laſt of the three that was killed had ſwam a good Engliſh

liſh mile, though his hands were not only tied behind him, but his arms pinioned."

Thus it appears that theſe three poor naked wretches were all murdered in cold blood, becauſe they endeavoured to eſcape from thoſe, who, without provocation, had injuriouſly and cruelly ſeized them by violence, in their native country, and were carrying them as ſlaves into exile. Harris tells the ſtory without the leaſt intimation that any thing had been done to theſe infidels which a good Chriſtian might not juſtify.

In an account of Capt. George Shelvock's voyage, which was undertaken in the year 1719, there is the following paragraph.—— "M. Frazier gives us an account that the Indians inhabiting the continent to the ſouth of this iſland (the iſland of Chiloe, which lies off the coaſt of Chili, about lat. 42 S. and long. about 72 W. of London) are called Chronos, that they go quite naked, and that in the inland part there is a race of men of an extraordinary ſize, called Cacabues, who being in amity with the Chronos, have ſometimes come with them to the dwellings of the Spaniards at Chiloe. He adds, that he was credibly informed by ſeveral who had been eye-witneſſes, that ſome were about nine or ten feet high. Who Frazier was, Mr. Harris, though he quotes him, does not tell us. His ſtory is certainly fabulous, for the whole coaſt of Chili, and the iſland of Chiloe, having been long in poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, the exiſtence of a gigantic race in thoſe parts, if real, would have been long out of doubt. The ſame objection lies againſt the account given of the Indian natives of Guam, by Cowley. The giants, four of whom he ſays he took priſoners, and three of whom he murdered, muſt have been familiar to the Spaniards, and conſequently, their exiſtence recorded by Spaniſh writers of credit, ſo as to make the fact as well known and believed as the exiſtence of the iſland itſelf. Of the other accounts, our readers muſt judge for themſelves.

Catherine Vadé's Preface to the Tales of William Vadé. From the French of M. de Voltaire.

I Still lament the death of my couſin William Vadé, who died, as all the world knows, ſome years ago. He was attacked by the ſmall-pox: I nurſed him, and ſaid to him with tears, "Ah! my couſin; ſee the conſequence of your not being inoculated: It coſt your brother Anthony his life, who was, like you, one of the lights of the age." "What would you have me ſay?" replied William; "I waited for leave from the Sorbonne, and I am convinced that I muſt die for having been too ſcrupulous." "The ſtate," anſwered I, "will have a dreadful loſs" "Ah!" cried William, "Alexander and brother Bertier are dead, Simiramis and Tillon, Sophocles and Danchet, are duſt and aſhes."—"Yes, my dear couſin, but their great names will live for ever. Would you not ſurvive in your nobleſt part? Will you not allow me to give the public, for their conſolation, thoſe old-womens ſtories with which you amuſed us

laſt

laſt year? they were the delight of our family; and Jerom Carré, your firſt couſin once removed, valued your works almoſt as much as his own: they will without doubt pleaſe all the world, that is to ſay, about thirty readers who have nothing to do."

William had no ſuch ambitious views; he anſwered me with a modeſty very becoming an author, but very uncommon, "Ah! my couſin, do you think, that, among the 90,000 pamphlets, publiſhed in Paris within theſe ten years, my trifles can find a place, and that I can float upon the river of oblivion which every day ſwallows up ſo many excellent writings!"

"Though you ſhould live but fifteen days after your death," replied I, "even that would be a great deal; there are few who enjoy that advantage. The fate of moſt men is to live unknown, and thoſe who have made the moſt noiſe are ſometimes forgotten the day after their death; you will be diſtinguiſhed from the crowd, and perhaps the very name of William Vadé having the honour to be printed in one or two journals, may be tranſmitted to the lateſt poſterity. Under what title would you have me publiſh your miſcellanies?" "Couſin," ſaid he, "I think the name of Trifles moſt ſuitable to them; moſt of the things that are done, ſaid, or printed, well deſerve that title."

I admired my couſin's modeſty, and was extremely affected by it. Jerom Carrè then entered the chamber. William made his will, by which he left me abſolute miſtreſs of his manuſcripts. Jerom and I aſked him where he would be buried; and he made the following reply, which will ever be freſh in my memory.

"I am very ſenſible, that, having never been exalted in this world to any of thoſe dignities which produce grand ſentiments, and which elevate a man above himſelf, having been neither a privy-counſellor, nor a ſheriff, nor a church-warden, I ſhall be treated after my death with very little ceremony. I ſhall be thrown into the charnel-houſe of St. Innocent's, and nothing will be placed on my grave but a wooden croſs, which has already ſerved for others; but I have always had ſuch a tender regard for my country, that I am very averſe to being buried in a church-yard. Certain it is, that, dying of the diſeaſe with which I am attacked, I ſhall ſtink horribly. This corruption of ſo many corpſes that are buried at Paris, in or near the churches, neceſſarily infects the air, and as young Ptolemy ſays, much to the purpoſe, when he was deliberating whether he ſhould grant Pompey an aſylum,

Their putrefying bodies taint the air,
And with the living wage perpetual war.

This ridiculous and odious cuſtom of paving the churches with the dead, occaſions in Paris, every year, epidemical diſorders, and all the deceaſed contribute, more or leſs, to infect their country. The Greeks and Romans were much wiſer than we; their burying-places were without the cities; and even now, there are many nations in Europe where this ſalutary cuſtom prevails. What pleaſure would it afford a good citizen, to

to go and manure, for example, the barren plains of Sablons, and to contribute to the raiſing of plentiful harveſts! By this prudent eſtabliſhment, generations will be mutually uſeful to each other; towns will be more healthy, and lands more fruitful. Indeed I cannot but ſay that there is a want of police both for the living and the dead."

William talked a long time on the ſubject. He had great views for the public good, and he died while he was ſpeaking of it, which is one evident mark of genius.

As ſoon as this was over, I reſolved to give him a magnificent funeral, worthy of the great reputation which he had acquired in the world. I went to the moſt celebrated bookſellers at Paris; I propoſed their purchaſing my couſin William's poſthumous works; I even added to them ſome excellent diſſertations of his brother Anthony, and ſome pieces of his firſt couſin once removed, Jerom Carrè. I obtained three Louis d'ors in ready money, a ſum which William had never poſſeſſed at one time in all his life. I had funeral tickets printed; I begged all the wits of Paris to honour with their preſence the maſs which I ordered for the repoſe of William's ſoul; not one came. I could not attend at the ceremony myſelf, and ſo William was buried without any one's knowing it. In the ſame manner he had lived; for though he had enriched the fair with many comic operas, which were the admiration of all Paris, they enjoyed the fruits of his genius, and neglected the author; thus (as the divine Plato ſays) we ſuck an orange and throw away the peel, we gather the fruits of a tree, and afterwards cut it down. I have always been ſhocked with this ingratitude.

Some time after William Vadé's death, we loſt our good friend and kinſman Jerom Carrè, ſo well known in his time by the comedy of *The Scotchwoman*, which, he ſaid, he tranſlated for the advancement of polite literature. I think it my duty to acquaint the public with the diſtreſs to which Jerom was reduced at the latter part of his life; which thus he diſcloſed in my preſence to brother Giroflée, his confeſſor.

"You know," ſaid he, "that at my chriſtening there were given me for patrons, St. Jerom, St. Thomas, and St. Raymond de Pennafort, and that when I had the happineſs to receive confirmation, there were added to my three patrons, St. Ignatius de Loyola, St. Francis Xavier, St. Francis de Borgia, and St. Regis, all Jeſuits, ſo that I ſtyled myſelf Jerom-Thomas-Raymond-Ignatius-Xavier-Francis-Regis Carré. I thought, for a long time, that with ſo many patrons I could not be in want of any thing upon earth. Ah! brother Giroflée, how have I been deceived! Patrons are like ſervants, the more we have, the worſe we are ſerved. But attend, if you pleaſe, to my misfortunes.

The reverend fathers the Jeſuiſts, or Jeſuits, were baniſhed, becauſe their inſtitution is pernicious, contrary to all the rights of kings, and of human ſociety, &c. Now Ignatius de Loyola having been author of that inſtitution, after cauſing himſelf to be whipped at the college of St. Barbe, and Xavier, Francis Borgia, and Regis, having practiſed the ſame diſcipline, it is plain they

they are all equally blameable, and thus here are four ſaints whom I muſt neceſſarily devote to all the devils.

This raiſed in my mind ſome ſcruples about St. Thomas and St. Raymond de Pennafort. I read their works, and I was aſtoniſhed when I found in Thomas and in Raymond, almoſt the very ſame words as in Buſembaum. I got rid as ſoon as poſſible of theſe two patrons, and burnt their books.

Thus was I reduced to the ſingle name of Jerom; but this Jerom, the only patron that I had left, has been of no more ſervice to me than the reſt; is it becauſe Jerom has no intereſt in paradiſe? I conſulted on this ſubject a man of great learning; he told me that Jerom was the moſt choleric of all men; that he uſed moſt groſs and injurious language to John, the holy biſhop of Jeruſalem, and to the holy prieſt Rufinus; that he even called the latter Hydra and Scorpion, and that he inſulted him after he was dead: he ſhewed me the paſſages. At length I found myſelf obliged to renounce Jerom, and to ſtile myſelf nothing but plain Carrè, which is very diſagreeable."

Thus Carrè lodged his grief in the boſom of brother Giroflée, who made him this anſwer: "You ſhall not want for ſaints, my dear child; take St. Francis d'Aſſiſe." "No," ſays Carrè, "his wife of ſnow would ſometimes incline me to laugh, and this is a ſerious affair." "Well then, take St. Dominic." "No, he was the founder of the inquiſition."—"Will you have St. Bernard?"—"He perſecuted too much poor Abelard, who had more wit than himſelf, and he intermeddled too much with buſineſs; give me a patron of ſuch humility that no one ever heard him ſpeak; that is the ſaint for me."

Brother Giroflée laid before him the impoſſibility of being canonized and unknown; he gave a liſt of many other patrons, with whom our friend was unacquainted, which was juſt the ſame thing; but at each ſaint that he propoſed, he demanded ſomething for his convent; for he knew that Carrè had money. Jerom Carrè then told him this ſtory, which ſeems to me very curious:

'There was formerly a king of Spain who had promiſed to beſtow conſiderable donations on all the inhabitants near Burgos, who had been ruined by the war. They came to the gates of the palace; but the guards refuſed them admittance, except on condition that they ſhould allow the guards to go halves. Good Cardero firſt preſented himſelf before the king; he fell on his knees, and ſaid, "Great Sir, I intreat your majeſty to order each of us a hundred laſhes with a thong." "A droll requeſt this," replied the king: "Why do you make it?" "Becauſe," ſaid Cardero, "your guards would abſolutely have half of what you ſhould give us." The king laughed very heartily, and made Cardero a conſiderable preſent. This gave riſe to the proverb, *It is better to have to do with God than with his ſaints.*'

With theſe ſentiments my dear Jerom Carrè departed this life; I have therefore annexed ſome of his works to thoſe of William: and I flatter myſelf, that the Pariſians, for whom Vadé and Carrè have al-

ways laboured, will pardon this my preface.

Catherine Vadé.

Curious extracts from Mr. Rouſſeau's letter on French muſic.

On the language moſt proper for muſic, now firſt tranſlated.

IT is eaſy to conceive that ſome languages are more proper for muſic than others, and that there may be ſome languages totally improper for any. Of the latter kind would be a language compoſed of mixt ſounds, of mute, ſurd and naſal ſyllables, of few ſonorous vowels, and a great many conſonants and articulations; and which might want ſome of thoſe eſſential conditions which I ſhall ſpeak of under the article of meaſure. For the ſake of curioſity, let us enquire what would be the conſequence of applying muſic to ſuch a language.

In the firſt place, the want of force in the ſound of the vowels would oblige the compoſer to give a good deal to the notes, and becauſe the language would be ſurd, the muſic would be noiſy. In the ſecond place, the hardneſs and frequency of the conſonants would oblige him to exclude a great number of words, to proceed on others only by elementary tones, ſo that the muſic would be inſipid and monotonous. For the ſame reaſon, it would be ſlow and tireſome, and when the movement ſhould be ever ſo little accelerated, its haſte would reſemble that of an hard and angular body rolling along on the pavement.

As ſuch a muſic would be deſtitute of all agreeable melody, the compoſer would endeavour to ſupply its place, by factitious and unnatural beauties; it would be charged with frequent and regular modulations; but cold, graceleſs, and inexpreſſive. Recourſe would be had to trills, ſtops, ſhakes, and other falſe graces; which would ſerve only to render the ſong more ridiculous, without rendering it leſs inſipid.

A muſic attended with ſuch ſuperfluous ornament will be always faint and inexpreſſive; while its images, deſtitute of all force and energy, deſcribe but a few objects in a great number of notes, exactly like Gothic writing, the lines of which are full of ſtrokes and characters, yet contain only two or three words, and but a very ſmall quantity of meaning in a great ſpace of paper.

The impoſſibility of inventing agreeable ſongs would oblige the compoſers to turn all their thoughts to the ſide of harmony; and for want of natural beauties to introduce thoſe of arbitrary faſhion, which have no other merit than lies in the delicacy of the execution. Thus inſtead of compoſing good muſic, they would compoſe difficult muſic; and to ſupply the want of ſimple melody, would multiply their accompanyments. It would coſt them much leſs trouble to lay a great many bad things one upon another, than to invent one good one.

In order to remove the inſipidity, they would increaſe the confuſion; they would imagine they were making muſic when they were only making a noiſe.

Another effect which would reſult from this effect of melody, is, that the muſicians, having only a falſe

falſe idea of it, would invent a melody of their own. Having nothing of true muſic, they would find no difficulty in multiplying its parts; becauſe they would give that name to what was not ſo; even to the thorough baſs; to the uniſon of which they would make no ſcruple to recite the counter-tenor, under cover of a ſort of accompanyment, whoſe pretended melody would have no manner of relation to the vocal part of the ſong. Wherever they ſaw notes they would find a tune, although in effect their tune would be nothing but a ſucceſſion of notes. *Voces, prætereaque nihil.* Let us proceed now to the meaſure, in the diſpoſition of which conſiſts the greater part of the beauty and expreſſion of the ſong.

Meaſure is to melody nearly what ſyntax is to diſcourſe: it is that which connects the words, diſtinguiſhes the phraſes, and gives ſenſe and conſiſtency to the whole. All muſic whoſe meaſure is not perceived, if the fault lie in the perſon who executes it, reſembles writing in cypher, which requires one to have a key to explain it: but if the muſic have no ſenſible meaſure in itſelf, it is only a confuſed collection of words taken at hazard and written without connection, in which the reader finds no ſenſe, becauſe the author gave them none.

I have ſaid that every national muſic takes its principal character from the language which is peculiar to it: and I ſhould have added, that it is the proſody of that language which principally conſtitutes its character. As vocal muſic long preceded the inſtrumental, the latter hath always received from the former both its tune and time; now the different meaſures of vocal muſic could ariſe only from the different methods of ſcanning a diſcourſe, and placing the long and ſhort ſyllables with regard to each other. This is very evident in the Greek muſic, whoſe meaſures were only ſo many formula of the rythmi furniſhed by the arrangements of long or ſhort ſyllables, and of thoſe feet of which the language and its poetry were ſuſceptible. So that, although one may very well diſtinguiſh in the muſical rythmus the meaſure of the proſody, the meaſure of the verſe, and the meaſure of the tune, it cannot be doubted that the moſt agreeable muſic, or at leaſt that of the moſt complete cadence, would be that in which the three meaſures ſhould concur as perfectly as poſſible.

After theſe ecclairciſſements, I return to my hypotheſis, and ſuppoſe that the language, I have been ſpeaking of, ſhould have a defective proſody, indiſtinct, inexact, and without preciſion; that its long and ſhort ſyllables ſhould have no ſimple relations with regard to time or number, ſo as to render its rythmus agreeable, exact, and regular; that its long ſyllables ſhould be ſome ſhorter, and others longer than others; that its ſhort ones ſhould in like manner be more or leſs ſhort; that it ſhould have many neither ſhort nor long; and that the differences between the one and the other ſhould be indeterminate and almoſt incommenſurable. It is clear that the national muſic, being obliged to receive into its meaſure the irregularities of the proſody, would have ſuch meaſure of courſe vague, unequal, and hardly perceptible; that its recitative would in particular partake of this

irregularity; that it would be very difficult to make the force of the notes and ſyllables agree; that the meaſure would be obliged to be perpetually changed, and that the verſes never could be ſet to an exact and flowing meaſure; that even in the meaſured airs, the movements would be all unnatural and void of preciſion; that if to this defect be added ever ſo little delay in time, the very idea of its inequality would be entirely loſt both in the ſinger and the auditor; and that, in fine, the meaſure not being perceived, nor its returns equal, it could be ſubject only to the caprice of the muſician, who might hurry or retard it as he pleaſed: ſo that it would be impoſſible to keep up a concert without ſomebody to mark the time to all, according to the fancy or convenience of ſome leader.

Hence it is that ſingers contract ſuch an habit of altering the time, that they frequently do it deſignedly even in thoſe pieces, where the compoſer has happily rendered it perceptible. To mark the time would be thought a fault in compoſition, and to follow it would be another in the taſte of ſinging; thus defects would paſs for beauties, and beauties for defects: errors would be eſtabliſhed as rules; and to compoſe muſic to the taſte of the nation, it would be neceſſary to apply carefully to thoſe things which would diſpleaſe every other people in the world.

Thus, whatever art might be uſed to hide the defects of ſuch muſic, it would be impoſſible it ſhould be pleaſing to any other ears than thoſe of the natives of the country where it ſhould be in vogue. By dint of ſuffering conſtant reproaches againſt their bad taſte, and by hearing real muſic in a language more favourable to it, they would at length endeavour to make their own reſemble it: in doing which, however, they would only deprive it of its real character, and the little accordance it might have with the language for which it was conſtructed. If they ſhould thus endeavour to unnaturalize their ſinging, they would render it harſh, rough, and almoſt unutterable: if they contented themſelves with ornamenting it with any other than ſuch accompanyments as were peculiarly adapted to it, they would only betray its inſipidity by an inevitable contraſt: they would deprive their muſic of the only beauty it was ſuſceptible of, in taking from all its parts that uniformity of character by which it was conſtituted; and, by accuſtoming their ears to diſdain the ſinging only to liſten to the ſymphony, they would in time reduce the voices only to a mere accompanyment of the accompanyments.

Thus we ſee by what means the muſic of ſuch a nation would be divided into vocal and inſtrumental; and thus we ſee how by giving ſuch different characters to the two ſpecies of it, they make a monſtrous compound of them when united.

The ſymphony would keep time; and the ſinging would ſuffer no reſtraint; ſo that the ſingers and the ſymphoniſts in the orcheſtra would be perpetually at variance, and putting one another out. This uncertainty, and the mixture of the two characters, would introduce in the manner of accompanyment, ſuch a tameneſs and inſipidity that the ſymphoniſts would get

get ſuch a habit, that they would not be able even to execute the beſt muſic with ſpirit and energy. In playing that like their own, they would totally enervate it; they would play the ſoft ſtrong and the ſtrong ſoft, nor would they know one of the varieties of theſe two terms. As to the others *rinforzando*, *dolce* *, *riſoluto*, *con guſto*, *ſpiritoſo*, *ſoſtenuto*, *con brio*, they would have no words for them in their language, and that of expreſſion would be totally void of meaning. They would ſubſtitute a number of trifling, cold, and ſlovenly ornaments, in the place of the maſterly ſtroke of the bow: and however numerous their orcheſtra, it would have no effect, or none but what was very diſagreeable. As the execution would be always ſluggiſh, and the ſymphoniſts are ever more ſolicitous to play finely, than to play in time, they would be hardly ever together; they would never be able to give an exact and juſt note, nor to execute any thing in that character. Foreigners would be almoſt all of them aſtoniſhed to find an orcheſtra, boaſted of as the firſt in Europe, hardly worthy to play at a booth in a fair †. It would be naturally expected that ſuch muſicians ſhould get an averſion to that muſic which thus diſgraced their own; and that adding ill will to bad taſte, they would put in execution the deſign of decrying it, with as ill ſucceſs as it was abſurdly premeditated.

On a contrary ſuppoſition to the foregoing, I might eaſily deduce all the qualities of a real muſic, formed to move, to imitate, to pleaſe, and to convey to the heart the moſt delicate impreſſions of harmony: but as this would lead me too far from my preſent ſubject, and particularly from our generally received notions of things, I ſhall confine myſelf to a few obſervations on the Italian muſic; which may enable us to form a better judgment of our own.

If it be aſked what language will admit of the beſt grammar, I anſwer that of the people who reaſon beſt; and if it be aſked what nation ſhould have the beſt muſic, I ſhould anſwer that whoſe language is beſt adapted to muſic. This is what I have already eſtabliſhed, and ſhall have farther occaſion to confirm it during the courſe of this letter. Now, if there be in Europe a language adapted to muſic, it is certainly the Italian; for that language is ſoft, ſonorous, harmonious, and more accented than any other; which four qualities are preciſely thoſe which are moſt proper for ſinging.

The Italians pretend, that our [the French] melody is flat and void of tune; all other nations alſo unanimouſly confirm their judgment in this particular ‡. On our part,

* There are not perhaps four French ſymphoniſts in Paris who know the difference between *piano* and *dolce*; and indeed it would be unneceſſary for them ſo to do; for which of them would be capable of executing it?

† Not that there are not ſome very good violin-players in the orcheſtra at the opera: on the contrary, they are almoſt all ſuch, taken ſeparately, and when they do not pretend to play in concert.

‡ There was a time, ſays my lord Shafteſbury, when the cuſtom of ſpeaking French had brought French muſic alſo into faſhion among us [the Engliſh]. But

part, we accuſe theirs of being capricious and barbarous *. I had much rather believe that one or the other were miſtaken, than be reduced to the neceſſity of ſaying, that, in a country where arts and ſciences in general are arrived to an high degree of perfection, that of muſic is as yet unknown.

The leaſt partial among us † contented themſelves with ſaying, that, both the Italian and French muſic were good, in their kind, and in their own language: but, beſides that other nations did not ſubſcribe to this compariſon, it ſtill remained to determine which of the two languages was the beſt adapted to muſic in itſelf. This is a queſtion which was much agitated in France, but will never be ſo elſewhere; a queſtion which can only be decided by an ear that is perfectly neuter, and which, of courſe, becomes daily more difficult of ſolution in the only country where the object of it can be problematical. I have made ſome experiments on this ſubject, which every one may repeat after me, and which appear to ſerve as a ſolution of it, at leaſt, with regard to melody; to which alone the whole diſpute is in a manner reducible.

I took ſome of the moſt celebrated airs in both kinds of muſic; and diveſting the one of its trills and perpetual cadences; the other of the under notes, which the compoſitor does not take the trouble to write, but leaves to the judgment of the finger ‡. I ſolfa'd them exactly by note, without any ornament, and without adding any thing to the ſenſe or connection of the phraſe. I will not tell you the effect which the reſult of this compariſon had on my own mind, becauſe I ought to exhibit my reaſons, and not to impoſe my authority. I will only give you an account of the method I took to determine, ſo that, if you think it a good one, you may take the ſame to convince yourſelf. I muſt caution you, however, that this experiment requires more precautions than may at firſt appear neceſſary.

The firſt and moſt difficult of all, is to be impartial and equitable in your choice and judgment. The ſecond is, that in order to make

the Italian, exhibiting ſomething more agreeable to nature, preſently diſguſted us with the other, and made us perceive it to be as heavy, flat, and inſipid, as it is in fact.

* It ſeems theſe reproaches are much leſs violent ſince the Italian muſic hath been heard among us. Thus it is that this admirable muſic need only ſhew itſelf what it is, to juſtify itſelf againſt every thing that is advanced againſt it.

† Many perſons condemn the total excluſion which the connoiſſeurs in muſic give, without heſitation, to the French muſic. Theſe conciliating moderators would have no excluſive taſte, juſt as if the love of what is good muſt neceſſarily work ſome regard for what is bad.

‡ This method was very much in favour of the French muſic; for the under notes in the Italian are no leſs eſſential to the melody, than thoſe which are written down. The point is leſs what is written, than what ought to be ſung: and indeed this manner of writing notes ought to paſs for a kind of abbreviation, whereas the cadences and trills in the French muſic are requiſite, if you will, to the taſte, but are by no means eſſential to the melody: they are a kind of paint, which ſerves to hide its deformity, without removing it, and which ſerves only to render it the more ridiculous to the ears of good judges.

this

this experiment, it is neceſſary for you to be equally acquainted with both ſtiles; otherwiſe that which ſhould happen to be moſt familiar, would perpetually preſent itſelf to the mind, to the prejudice of the other. Nor is this ſecond condition leſs difficult than the firſt: for among thoſe who are acquainted with both kinds of muſic, there is no heſitation of choice; and it is eaſy to perceive by the ridiculous arguments of thoſe who write againſt the Italian muſic, how little knowledge they have of that, or indeed the art in general.

Add to this, that it is very eſſential to proceed in exact time; but I foreſee that this caution, though ſuperfluous in any other country, would be uſeful in this, and that this omiſſion alone neceſſarily carries with it an incompetency of judgment.

Taking all theſe precautions, the character of each kind of muſic cannot fail of declaring itſelf; when it would be difficult not to clothe the paſſages with thoſe ideas which agree with them; and indeed not to add, at leaſt mentally, thoſe turns and ornaments, which may be refuſed them in ſinging. We ſhould not reſt the matter, alſo, upon a ſingle experiment; for one air may pleaſe more than another, without determining the preference of the kind of muſic; nor is it without a great number of trials that a reaſonable judgment is to be formed. Beſides, in taking away the words, we take away the moſt important part of the melody, which is expreſſion; ſo that all that can be determined, is, whether the modulation be good, and the tune natural and beautiful. All this ſhews how difficult it is to take ſufficient precautions againſt preposſeſſions, and how far reaſon is neceſſary to qualify us to judge properly in matters of taſte.

I made another trial, which requires leſs precaution, and will yet appear probably more deciſive. I gave to ſome Italian muſicians the fineſt airs of Lulli, and to ſome French ones the ſelect airs of Leo and Pergoleſe, and I remarked, that though the latter were very far from entering into the true taſte of theſe pieces, they were ſenſible nevertheleſs of their melody, and made out of them, in their manner, agreeable and tuneful paſſages. But the Italians ſolfa'd our moſt pathetic airs, without diſcovering either paſſage or tune: they found no muſic at all in them, but ſaw only a ſucceſſion of notes placed without choice or deſign; they ſung them indeed exactly as you would read Arabic words written in French characters*.

My third experiment was this: I had an opportunity of ſeeing at Venice, an Armenian, a man of underſtanding, who had never before heard any muſic; and to whom were exhibited in the ſame concert, a French piece, which began with theſe word,

Temple ſacre, ſejour tranquille:

* Our muſicians pretend to deduce a great advantage from this difference. We can execute the Italian muſic, ſay they, with their uſual vanity, and the Italians cannot execute ours; therefore our muſic is better than theirs. They do not ſee that they ought to deduce a conſequence directly contrary; and ſay, Therefore the Italians have a melody and we have none.

and an air of Galuppi's, which begins thus;

Voi che languite ſenza ſperanza,

Both the one and the other were ſung, very indifferently for a Frenchman, and badly for an Italian, by a man accuſtomed ſolely to French muſic, and at that time an enthuſiaſt for Rameau. I obſerved that my Armenian, during the French ſong, expreſſed much more ſurpriſe than pleaſure: but every body took notice that his countenance and eyes brightened up, and that he was inſtantly affected with the very firſt notes of the Italian. He appeared indeed enchanted, and gave himſelf up entirely to the impreſſions of the muſic; the ſimple ſounds, for he underſtood hardly any thing of the language, giving him an evident delight. From that time he would never liſten to a French air.

But without going abroad for examples, have we not many perſons among ourſelves; who being acquainted only with our own operas, really conceived they had no manner of taſte for ſinging, and were undeceived only by the Italian interludes. They imagined they did not love muſic, for the very reaſon that proved they liked only that which was really ſuch.

I muſt confeſs that ſo many facts made me doubt of the exiſtence of French melody; and raiſed a ſuſpicion that it was only a kind of modulated full chorus, that had nothing in it agreeable of itſelf; pleaſing only by the help of certain adventitious and arbitrary ornaments, and to ſuch only as were prepoſſeſſed in its favour. For we find that our muſic is hardly ſupportable even to our own ears, when it is executed by indifferent voices, who cannot make the moſt of it. It requires a Fel and a Jeliotte to ſing French muſic: but every voice is good for the Italian; becauſe the beauties of the latter are in the muſic itſelf, whereas thoſe of the French, if it has any, depend all on the abilities of the ſinger*.

There are three things which to me appear to concur in the perfection of Italian melody. The firſt is the ſweetneſs of the language; which making all its inflections eaſy, leaves the genius of the muſician at liberty to make a more exquiſite choice, to give a greater variety to his combinations; and aſſign to every actor a particular turn, ſo that each may have his own peculiar manner to diſtinguiſh him from the reſt.

The ſecond is the boldneſs of the modulations, which, although leſs ſervilely prepared than ours, are

* It is an error to imagine that the Italian ſingers have, in general, leſs voice than the French: on the contrary, it is neceſſary that they ſhould have ſtronger lungs, and be more harmonious, to make themſelves heard throughout the ſpacious theatres of Italy, without ſtopping to manage the voice, as the Italian muſic requires. The French ſong requires the utmoſt effect of the lungs, and the whole extent of the voice. Stronger, louder, cry our ſinging-maſters, ſend forth the ſounds, open the mouth, give out all your voice. On the other hand, the Italian maſters ſay, ſofter, force nothing, ſing eaſy; let your notes be ſoft and flowing; reſerve the loud exertions for thoſe rare occaſions when it is neceſſary to ſtrike and amaze. Now, it appears to me, that if people muſt make themſelves heard, thoſe have the ſtrongeſt voice, who can do it without being under the neceſſity of ſcreaming.

rendered

rendered more agreeable in being rendered more ſenſible, and without giving any harſhneſs to the ſong, add a lively energy to the expreſſion. It is by means of this the muſician, paſſing ſuddenly from one key or mode to another, and ſuppreſſing, when neceſſary, the intermediate and pedantic tranſitions, is capable of expreſſing thoſe reſerves, interruptions, and parentheſes, which are the language of the impetuous paſſions; and which the glowing Metaſtaſio, Porpora, Galuppi, Cocchi, Jumella, Perez, and Terra-Deglia have ſo often and ſo ſucceſsfully employed; while our lyric poets know juſt as little of them as our muſicians.

The third advantage, and that which gives to melody its greateſt effect, is the extreme exactneſs of time which is obſervable in the graveſt as well as the livelieſt movements: an exactneſs which renders the ſinging animated and intereſting, the accompanyments lively and flowing, which really multiplies the tunes, by making in one combination of ſounds as many different melodies as there are methods of ſcanning them: an exactneſs which conveys every image to the underſtanding; which furniſhes the muſician with the means of giving to words all imaginable characters, many of which we have no idea of, and which renders the movements proper to expreſs all thoſe characters, or a ſingle movement proper to contraſt and change the character at the pleaſure of the compoſer.

The hiſtory of Nonſenſe.

THERE is no race of people that has been more conſpicuous, in almoſt every relation of life, than the illuſtrious family of Nonſenſe. In every age of the world they have ſhone forth with uncommon luſtre, and have made a wonderful progreſs in all the arts and ſciences. They have, at different ſeaſons, delivered ſpeeches from the throne, harangued at the bar, debated in parliament, and gone amazing lengths in philoſophical enquires and metaphyſical diſquiſitions.

In a word, the whole hiſtory of the world, moral and political, is but a Cyclopædia of Nonſenſe. For which reaſon, conſidering the dignity and importance of the family, and the infinite ſervice it has been of to me and many of my contemporaries, I have reſolved to oblige the public with a kind of abſtract of the hiſtory of Nonſenſe.

Nonſenſe was the daughter of ignorance, begot on falſhood, many years ago, in a dark cavern in Boetia. As ſhe grew up, ſhe inherited all the qualities of her parents; ſhe diſcovered too warm a genius to require being ſent to ſchool; but, while other dull brats were poring over an horn-book, ſhe amuſed herſelf with ſpreading fantaſtical lies, taught her by her mamma, and which have, in latter ages, been familiarly known to us under the names of ſham, banter, and humbug.

When ſhe grew up, ſhe received the addreſſes, and ſoon became the wife, of impudence. Who he was, or of what profeſſion, is uncertain: ſome ſay he was the ſon of ignorance by another venter, and was ſuffered

ſuffered to become the huſband of nonſenſe in thoſe dark ages of the world, as the Ptolemies of Egypt married their own ſiſters. Some record, that he was in the army; others, that he was an interpreter of the laws; and others, a divine. However this was, nonſenſe and impudence were ſoon inſeparably united to each other, and became the founders of a more noble, and numerous family than any yet preſerved on any tree of deſcent whatſoever; of which ingenious deviſe they were ſaid to have been the firſt inventors.

It is my chief intent, at preſent, to record the great exploits of that branch of the family, who have made themſelves remarkable in England, though they began to ſignalize themſelves very early, and are ſtill very flouriſhing in moſt parts of the world. Many of them were Egyptian prieſts four thouſand years ago, and told the people, that it was religion to worſhip dogs, monkeys, and green leeks; and their deſcendants prevailed on the Greeks and Romans to build temples in honour of ſuppoſed deities, who were, in their own eſtimation of them, whores and whore-mongers, pickpockets and drunkards.

Others roſe up ſome ages after in Turkey, and perſuaded the people to embrace the doctrine of bloodſhed and the ſword, in the name of the moſt merciful God. And others have manifeſted their lineal deſcent from nonſenſe and impudence, by affirming that there is no God at all. There were alſo among them many ſhrewd philoſophers: ſome of whom, though they were racked with a fit of the ſtone, or laid up with a gouty toe, declared that they felt not the leaſt degree of pain: and others would not truſt their own eyes; but, when they ſaw an horſe or a dog, could not tell whether it was not a chair or a table, and even made a doubt of their own exiſtence.

We have no certain account of the progreſs of nonſenſe here in England, till after the reformation. All we hear of her and her progeny before that period of time is, that they led a lazy life among the monks in cloyſters and convents, dreaming over old legends of ſaints, drawing up breviaries and maſs-books, and ſtringing together ſome barbarous Latin verſes in rhime.

In the days of queen Elizabeth, ſo little encouragement was given to her family, that it ſeemed to have been almoſt extinct; but, in the ſucceeding reign, it flouriſhed again, and filled the moſt conſiderable offices in the nation.

Nonſenſe became a great favourite at court, where ſhe was highly careſſed on account of her wit, which conſiſted in puns and quibbles; and the bonny monarch himſelf was thought to take a more than ordinary delight in her converſation. At this time many of her progeny took orders, and got themſelves preferred to the beſt livings, by turning the evangeliſts into punſters, and making St. Paul quibble from the pulpit. Among the reſt there was a biſhop, a favourite ſon of nonſenſe, of whom it is particularly recorded, that he uſed to tickle his courtly audience, by telling them that matrimony was become a matter of money, with many other right reverend jeſts recorded by Joe Miller.

Several brothers of this family were likewiſe bred to the bar, and very

very gravely harangued againſt old women ſucked by devils in the ſhape of ram-cats, &c.

As an inſtance of their profound wiſdom and ſagacity, I need only mention that juſt and truly pious act of parliament made againſt the crying ſin of witchcraft, 1 Jac. I. chap. 12. "Such as ſhall uſe invocation or conjuration of any evil ſpirit, or ſhall conſult, covenant with, entertain, employ, fee, or reward, any evil ſpirit, to any intent, or take up any dead perſon, or part thereof, to be uſed in witchcraft, or have uſed any of the ſaid arts, whereby any perſon ſhall be killed, conſumed, or lamed in his or her body, they, together with their acceſſories before the fact, ſhall ſuffer as felons, without benefit of clergy."

In the troubleſome times of king Charles the Firſt, nonſenſe and her family ſided with the parliament. Theſe ſet up new ſects in religion: ſome of them cropped their hair ſhort, and called themſelves the enlightened; ſome fell into trances, and pretended to ſee holy viſions; while others got into tubs, and held forth, with many whinings and groans, and ſnuffling through the noſe.

In the merry days of king Charles the Second, nonſenſe aſſumed a more gay and libertine air; and her progeny, from fanatics, became downright infidels. Several courtiers of the family wrote lewd plays, as well as luſcious love-ſongs, and other looſe verſes, which were collected together, and greedily bought up in miſcellanies.

In the ſucceeding reign, ſome of the kindred, who had received their education at St. Omers, thought themſelves on the point of eſtabliſhing nonſenſe in church and ſtate, and were preparing to make bonfires on the occaſion in Smithfield, when they were obliged to leave the kingdom.

Since the revolution, the field of politics has afforded large ſcope for nonſenſe and her family to make themſelves remarkable. Hence aroſe the various ſects in party, diſtinguiſhed by the name of whig and tory, miniſterial and Jacobite, Sunderlandians, Oxfordians, Godolphinians, Bolingbrokians, Walpolians, Pelhamians, &c. &c. &c. names which have kindled as hot a war in pamphlets and journals, as the Guelphs and Gibilines in Italy, or the Big and Little Endians in the kingdom of Lilliput.

I have here endeavoured to give a ſhort abridgment of the hiſtory of nonſenſe; though a very ſmall part of the exploits of the family can be included in ſo compendious a chronicle. Some of them were very deep ſcholars, and filled the profeſſors chairs at the univerſities. They compoſed many elaborate diſſertations, to convince the world, that two and two make four; and diſcovered, by dint of ſyllogiſm, that white is not black. Their inquiries in natural philoſophy were no leſs extraordinary: many ſpent their lives and their fortunes in attempting to diſcover a wonderful ſtone, that ſhould turn every baſer metal into gold; and others employed themſelves in making artificial wings, by the help of which they ſhould fly up into the world of the moon. Another branch of the family took to the Belles Lettres, and were the original founders of the learned ſociety of Grub-ſtreet.

Never was any æra, in the annals of

of nonſenſe, more illuſtrious than the preſent; nor did that noble family more ſignally diſtinguiſh itſelf in every occupation.

In oratory, who are greater proficients than the progeny of nonſenſe? Witneſs many long and eloquent ſpeeches delivered in St. Stephen's chapel, in Weſtminſter-hall, the aſſizes and quarter-ſeſſions, at Clare-market, and the Robin-Hood.

In philoſophy, what marvellous things have not been proved by nonſenſe? the ſome-time-profeſſor of aſtronomy at Greſham college ſhewed Sir Iſaac Newton to be a mere aſs, and wire-drawed the books of Moſes into a complete ſyſtem of natural philoſophy: life-guard-men have, with the utmoſt certainty of nonſenſe, foretold earthquakes; and others have penned curious eſſays on air-quakes, water-quakes, and comets.

In politics, how ſucceſsfully have the ſons of nonſenſe bandied about the terms of court and country? how wiſely have they debated upon taxes? and with what amazing penetration did they but lately foreſee an invaſion *è*

In religion, their domain is particularly extenſive: for, though nonſenſe is excluded, at leaſt from the firſt part of the ſervice in all regular churches, yet ſhe often occupies the whole ceremony at the tabernacle and foundery in Moorfields, and the chapel at Long-acre. But for the credit of ſo polite an age, be it known, that the children of nonſenſe, who are many of them people of faſhion, are as often ſeen at the play-houſe as at church: and, it is ſomething ſtrange, that the family of nonſenſe is now divided againſt itſelf, and in high conteſt about the management of their favourite amuſement —the opera.

The writer of the following letters was in England ſome years ago: though a ſtranger and friendleſs, he was patronized and protected by the generous nobleman to whom his firſt letter is directed; his noble patron recommended him to the late Duke of Cumberland, who ſent him to the royal academy at Woolwich, where he continued a conſiderable time, and was remarkable for the diligent attention he paid to his military ſtudies. He afterwards ſerved as a volunteer in our army in Germany; behaved with great ſpirit, and was much eſteemed, as well by the Hanoverians and Heſſians as by the Engliſh generals; from thence he went by land, making Ruſſia his way to Georgia, with an intention to make his military acquiſitions uſeful to the celebrated prince Heraclius, whom he conſidered as his ſovereign.

Copy of the firſt letter of Emin to the then E. now D. of N—— d.

My Lord,

I Preſent you the ſpecimen of my writing I promiſed. It is too bold, I am afraid, to make myſelf the ſubject, when I write for your lordſhip; but forgive, my lord, the language of a ſtranger: I have been in too low condition to know how to write proper to your lordſhip; but you ſpeak to me more kind and humble than mean people; ſo I am encouraged. — I have very good deſigns, and I have

I have ſuffered very much hardſhips for them. I think your lordſhip will not deſpiſe a perſon in a mean condition, for thinking of ſomething more than livelihood; I have with a good will thrown behind me a very eaſy livelihood for this condition, mean as it is; and I am not troubled, if I can carry my point at laſt. As long as I can remember my own family, and I remember my great grandfathers, they have been always ſoldiers, and always did remember Chriſt, though they were torn out of their country of Armenia by Shaw Abbas, and planted in Hamadan. After their captivity they were ſoldiers likewiſe. Two of my uncles did ſpill their blood in the ſervice of Kouly Kan: my father was his ſlave for many years; but he was at laſt forced to fly into India, becauſe this tyrant had ſharpened his battle-axe againſt his own army, more than upon his enemies. Soon after my father ſent for me to Calcutta in Bengal, where he is a merchant. There I ſaw the fort of Europeans, and the ſoldiers exerciſe, and the ſhipping, and that they were dexterous and perfect in all things. Then I grieved within myſelf for my religion and my country, that we were in ſlavery and ignorance, like Jews, vagabonds over the earth; and I ſpoke to my father upon all this; becauſe our fathers did not fight for their country; but I underſtood that the Armenians in the mountains were free, and handled arms from their childhood; and that thoſe under Patriarch, who are ſubject to the Turks and Perſians, did not want courage; but they are all ignorant, and fight only with a wild and natural fierceneſs and ſo they have no order, and do nothing but like robbers. And I reſolved I would go to Europe to learn art military, and other ſciences to aſſiſt that art; and I was ſure that if I could go into Armenia, like European officer, I may be uſeful at laſt in ſome degree to my country; but my father did not liſten to me, for God did not give him underſtanding in theſe things. I could not bear to live like a beaſt, eating and drinking, without liberty or knowledge: — I went to captain Fox, of the ſhip Walpole, and kiſſed his feet hundred times, to let me work for my paſſage to Europe, before he would bend to me; but he did at laſt admit me; and I came to England with much labour; but it did not grieve me when I thought of my country: I entered myſelf with my little money into Mr. Middleton's academy: I had the honour to tell your lordſhip ſo before: I was firſt a ſcholar, and, when my money was gone, I was a ſervant there for my learning; but he was broke, and I loſt every thing. I went into the ſtreet to work for my bread, for I could not bear to go about vaging a tail at people's doors for a bit of meat. I will not grieve your lordſhip with the miſery which I went through; I do not want to be pitied. I got ſervice at laſt as a porter with one Mr. Robarts, a grocer in the city: in this time I carried ſometimes burthens of near two hundred weight upon my back and paid out of my wages to learn ſome geometry, and to compleat myſelf in writing, and juſt to begin a little French; but becauſe my

my lord, I almoſt ſtarved myſelf to pay for this, and carried burthens more than my ſtrength, I hurted myſelf ſo that I could not work any longer; ſo that I was in deſpair, and not care what become of me: but a friend put me to write with one Mr. Webſter, an attorney in Cheapſide, which for a little time got bread: but I was reſolved, in deſpair,, to go again to India, becauſe nobody would put out his hand to help me to learn; and my uncle ſent 60 pounds to governor Davis to carry me back. I am afraid I am too troubleſome in my accounts to your lordſhip; but we people of Aſia cannot ſay little in a great deal, like ſcholars. Now I met by chance ſome gentlemen who encouraged me, and gave me books to read, and adviſed me to kiſs colonel Dingley's hands, and ſhew my buſineſs to him. He was a brave ſoldier, took me by the hand, ſpoke to his own ſerjeant, an honeſt man, to teach me manual exerciſe, and gave me Bland's Military Diſcipline, and promiſed to help me to learn gunnery and fortification; but I was again unfortuned; for, when light juſt began to come to my eyes, he died, and I was like before, except that I knew a little of manual exerciſe, and read ſome of the Roman hiſtory; could learn no more nor live. I was broke to pieces, and bowed my neck to governor Davis, to go over to my friends, without doing any of theſe things I ſuffered for. I am in this net at preſent; but I am happier than all mankind, if I can meet any great man who can prevail upon governor Davis to allow me ſomething out of the money he has only upon condition that I return to blindneſs once again; that I may go through evolutions with the recruits, and learn gunnery and fortification, and if there is war, to go one year as a volunteer. If governor Davis writes, that I have great man here my protector, my father, who looks upon me as a perſon run away and forſaken, will make me an allowance to learn. If I could clear my own eyes, and ſerve my country and my religion, that is trod under the foot of Muſalman, I would go through all ſlavery and danger with a glad heart; but if I muſt return, after four years ſlavery and miſery, to the ſame ignorance, without doing any good, would break my heart, my lord, in the end. I beg pardon, I have experience of your lordſhip's goodneſs, elſe I would not ſay ſo much; I would not receive, but return; and I want nothing but a little ſpeaking from the authority of an Indian governor to my friends, I have always been honeſt. Thoſe I have been ſlave to will ſay I am honeſt. Mr. Grey truſted me.

Here is a ſort of ſtory nothing but your lordſhip's good nature can make tolerable. I am much obliged to your lordſhip for your patience. I ſhall be very proud of giving your lordſhip all the proof in my power how much I am, &c.

Joſeph Ameen.

Tranſ-

Tranſlation, from the Armenian, of his letter to prince Heraclius.

To the moſt ſhining, moſt chriſtian, king Heraclius, of Georgia and Armenia.

My King,

ALL things that have been made, from the beginning of the world to this day, are by the will of God, according to the New Teſtament. All things were made by Him; and without Him was not any thing made that was made. God created the heaven and the earth, the ſea and the land; and it is He that made you king over two nations, Armenians and Georgians. Glory be to God the Father of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, that made you defender and protector of thoſe Chriſtian nations, and of their faith, who have been many hundred years under the hands of Perſian unbelievers; and being now delivered by the mighty hands of your majeſty, the ſame God will alſo, I hope, deliver theſe Chriſtians, who are under the hands of Othomans; for there is no difficulty in the mighty hands of God; and whoſoever truſt in Him, ſhall not be aſhamed. It was He that delivered Iſrael, by the hand of the prophet Moſes, out of the hands of Pharaoh, and fed them with manna, according to the holy Pſalms, which ſaith, Men did eat the bread of angels. May the ſame God preſerve and ſtrengthen the wriſt of your majeſty, to defend us from the encroachment of barbarians! Amen.

Again, having heard the fame of your majeſty's brave conqueſt, by which you have poſſeſſed the two ancient kingdoms of Armenia and Georgia, and that they are at preſent under your majeſty's protection, being deſirous, from the readineſs of my ſoul, to offer your majeſty my ſervice, which I hope you will make no difficulty to accept it, as money is far from the deſire of your majeſty's ſervant, who wiſhes nothing but to ſerve him who has the rule over his nation; for, while I am here, I want nothing: I have a great friend here, and that great friend is my protector; and that protector is the ſon of the king of England. If it pleaſe your majeſty to inſtruct me of your will and pleaſure, that I may petition to that great prince, in order to obtain leave to come and to ſerve you as an European officer, according to my low abilities; and that I may teach your ſoldiers to fight like Europeans, who are very well known to your majeſty, that with a few men they overcome many.

Your majeſty has heard of the German nation, who, with no more than twenty thouſand men, are able to give battle to a hundred thouſand Mahometans or Turks, an enemy to the Chriſtian nations. I would alſo acquaint your majeſty, how it is, or by what means, that the European nation are ſuch conquerors, and ſo brave warriors. It is a rule among them, that whoever is deſirous, to become a warrior, firſt, he is obliged to enter himſelf into the houſe of exerciſe, which they call it here, an academy to learn or ſtudy, four or five years, the art of war, that is to ſay, to learn the art of building ſtrong caſtles, the like of which are not to be found in all Aſia; and alſo the

the art of managing great guns in ſuch a manner, as none of our fortifications could ſtand before them for three days; likewiſe, the manner of encamping with judgment, and the way of ranging of the ſoldiers, ſo that they are like a wall of iron, not to be broken; and, after having thoroughly compleated his ſtudy in that art, leaves the place, goes and offers himſelf and his ſervice to his prince or king, thereby becomes an officer, or fighter for his king and country; and by long experience perfects himſelf in that great art; for the art of war here is not to be underſtood eaſily; it contains many things difficult to be known, and very much preferable to the practice of Turks and Perſians. See, O mighty king, it is not by ſtrength of arm, that theſe nations are called conquerors, but by wiſdom and art. Here every thing is by art and wiſdom; for without wiſdom the land is not land; and the natious that dwell therein are blind and unhappy. According to the Old Teſtament, which ſaith, God made the heaven and the earth by his infinite wiſdom; therefore God loveth wiſdom for this reaſon. I ſay, whoſoever followeth wiſdom, he is dear, or beloved of God; for from wiſdom proceedeth all manner of goodneſs; alſo, a man is not mighty without wiſdom, nor wiſe without righteouſneſs. The ancient Romans, who were ſo great, gave laws, and ſubdued all nations of the world: this was by art and wiſdom, before our Saviour, although they were heathens and idolaters; but they were virtuous, and lived in good morals. Another example, Peter the Great, of Ruſſia, who could not be ſo great a warrior, and his country could never have been ſo bleſſed, and flouriſhed, had not he come over here to learn wiſdom, who, when he was in Holland, ſerved in a place of ſhip-building, like one of the labourers, and humbled himſelf therein: whoſoever humbleth himſelf ſhall be exalted, &c. And when he returned into his own country, he was full of all manner of wiſdom, by which he made himſelf father, as well as lord and king, over his country. Theſe are things which have made the people of Europe to be conquerors, and to be eſteemed more wiſe than all the nations upon the face of the earth; for amongſt them are learned men, who ſtudy the way in which God has made all things according to their nature, by which they are able to do things of great wonder and uſefulneſs. They ſend likewiſe into every part of the world, at a great expence, for to learn all things that are produced upon or under the earth, by which they are increaſed in wiſdom and riches; their cities are very great, their people are very happy, not being afraid of famine or dangers, and they are under excellent laws, by which no man is ſuffered to do wrong to another, though he is weak or poor. But this nation, this great and mighty nation, O my king! where I live, is not only great and wiſe nation, but alſo deſtroyers of the devourers of mankind. I am ſurpriſed to ſee, that even the ſheep in this country reſt in quietneſs without the leaſt fear of wolves. May the great God grant your majeſty's ſubjects to follow their examples, to grow

wiſe

wiſe and conquerors, under the wiſdom and courage of your majeſty, to whom God grant long life, to trample your enemies like duſt under your feet.

May it pleaſe your majeſty to know who your ſervant is, that raiſes his head to ſpeak to you, and takes pains to know theſe things, with much labour, for your majeſty's ſervice, to whom God grant victory. The name of your ſervant is Emin, the ſon of Joſeph, the ſon of Michael, the ſon of Gregory, who is deſcended from Emin, who, in the day when Armenia was broke under the battle-axe of Shaw Abbas, was Minbaſhy in his country; but he was made captive, with others, and was carried into Perſia, and placed at Hamadan; from him your majeſty's ſervant is come, and he is called of his name, being born at Hamadan; but our captivity was grievous under the Perſians, who, ſince Mahometaniſm, which is well known to your majeſty, are grown quite barbarians, not being ſo civilized as they were in antient times, (according to the hiſtories I have read in this bleſſed iſland) ſo that my father flew from Hamadan, in the time of Shaw Thamas Kouly Kan, into India, to a place called Calcutta, where the Engliſh have a fort, and ſoldiers, and a great trade, though their country is ſeven months voyage from Bengal; there my father made himſelf a merchant to this day; and would have made me ſuch as himſelf, but I did not ſubmit to him; for I enquired of my fathers from my infancy, the reaſon why we were perſecuted by infidels? and why we did reſide ſo contemptibly amongſt lawleſs nations? but they made me no anſwer, and my heart was grieved, and I had none to comfort me in my griefs; for I ſaid, the ants that creep upon the earth have a king, and we have not; and the nations of all countries make their laugh upon us, alſo perſecuting, ſaying to us, that you are maſterleſs; you have no king of your own, and that you reſemble the Jews ſcattered upon the face of the earth; you have no love for one another; you are without honour; and by the diſunity of your nation, all the nations inſult you; you are contemptible, and without zeal; and you are as great lovers of money, as the heathens did love their gods. I could not bear all theſe reflections, whilſt I grieved, and found none to heal me. I obſerved watchfully the Europeans, their wiſe cuſtoms, and their ſhipping, far better both for ſailing and for war, than the ſhips of the Indians; and above all, the practice of their ſoldiers, who, if they were thouſands of men, by one word of command from their officers, inſtantly all together move and act, as if they were one man. Then I thought in my mind, that it was God that had put it in my heart to think on all things. Therefore, I ſpoke not to my father, but had hopes in my heart, that if I went to England, I ſhould learn the art of war, and I was encouraged, for I then heard a little, and not much, of your majeſty's name, until I came here, where I learned that your majeſty was eſtabliſhed in your kingdom, and had routed a great army of Perſians. See! O my king, what great thing the wiſdom is, by which this nation know our country better than we do;

do; and that this nation are awake, and we are asleep. On board the ship I worked like a sailor; and afterwards, when I came here, was so reduced, that I was forced by hunger, to offer myself to sale upon the Exchange, to be sent into the new world. Oh! my king, do not pity me; no, not even at that time when you hear, or see me sacrificed in your service, but pity those servants of Christ, who deserve pity; but the omnipotent God saved me, by the hands of an Englishman; and the same God who heard the crying of my heart, did put it into the heart of a generous nobleman, who is one of the pillars of the throne of England, to assist me. He made me right in the counsel of my heart; he made me known to the son of the king of England; he sent me to the place of education, where I learnt the art of war, according to wisdom.

My ambition is to lay my knowledge at the feet of your majesty, and to serve you in the best of my ability. For know, O my king, that what is not built on knowledge, though it is very strong and lofty, is as if it were built upon sand; therefore, my purpose is, to go well instructed into your majesty's service, and to carry with me men skilful in all things, (if you give me encouragement,) to strengthen and polish your kingdom, like the kingdoms of Europe; for you have a good country, and command over many brave men; and if you could gather the Armenians, a rich and trading people, who are scattered to the east, and the west, and the north, and the south, under the protection of your majesty's arms in your own country, no kingdom in the east would be like your kingdom, for riches and glory. May the eternal God, the Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, sharpen your scymitar upon all your enemies, and strengthen the wrist of your majesty's right hand, to protect our distressed nation, according to the wishes and labours of your servant.

*** It is not certainly known whether this letter came to Heraclius's hand.

††† The letter to the D. of N——— is printed from the original, in Emin's own hand writing; the character remarkably fair, and even mercantile.

From Voltaire's Ignorant Philosopher.

PYthagoras, during his residence in India, learnt, as all the world knows, at the school of the Gymnosophists, the language of beasts and that of plants. Walking one day in a field near the sea-shore, he heard these words: How unhappy am I to be born an herb! Scarce have I attained two inches in height, before a devouring monster, a horrid animal, tramples me under his feet; his jaw is armed with a row of sharp scythes, with which he cuts me, tears me, and then swallows me. Man calls this monster a sheep. I do not think there is in the whole creation a more abominable creature.

Pythagoras advanced a few steps: he met with an oyster that was yawning upon a small rock. He had not yet embraced that admirable law by which we are forbidden to eat our own likeness. He

He was going to ſwallow the oyſter, when it uttered theſe ſoothing words: O nature, how happy is the herb, which is like thy work! when it is cut it regenerates and is immortal; and we poor oyſters, in vain are we defended by a double buckler; villains eat us by dozens at their breakfaſt, and it is over with us for ever. What a dreadful deſtiny is that of an oyſter, and how barbarous is man!

Pythagoras ſhuddered; he felt the enormity of the crime he was going to commit; he weeping aſked pardon of the oyſter, and replaced him very ſnug upon the rock.

Whilſt he was returning to the city, in a profound meditation at this adventure, he obſerved ſome ſpiders that were eating flies, ſwallows that were eating ſpiders, ſparrow-hawks that were eating ſwallows. None of theſe folks, ſaid he, are philoſophers.

Pythagoras upon his entrance was hurted, bruiſed, and thrown down by a multitude of beggars and bunters, who ran in crying, Well done, he deſerved it. Who? what? ſaid Pythagoras, getting up; whilſt the people continued running and crying, We ſhall have high fun in ſeeing them broil.

Pythagoras imagined they were ſpeaking of lentiles, or ſome other kind of vegetable—but he was quite miſtaken — they meant two poor Indians. Oh! ſaid Pythagoras, theſe are doubtleſs two great philoſophers, who are tired of their lives; they are deſirous of regenerating under another form; there is a pleaſure in changing the place of one's abode, though one may be badly lodged—there is no diſputing taſte.

He went on with the mob as far as the public ſquare, where he ſaw the great pile of wood lighted, and oppoſite to it a bench, which was called a tribunal; upon this bench judges were ſeated, each of whom held a cow's tail in his hand, and they had caps upon their heads, which greatly reſembled the two ears of that animal which formerly carried Silenus, when he came into the country with Bacchus, after having croſſed the Erythrean ſea dry-footed, and ſtopped the courſe of the ſun and moon, as it is very faithfully related in the Orphics.

There was amongſt theſe judges an honeſt man well known to Pythagoras. The ſage of India explained to the ſage of Samos the nature of the feſtival the Indian people were going to aſſiſt at.

The two Indians, ſaid he, are not at all deſirous of being burnt; my grave brethren have condemned them to that puniſhment, one for having ſaid that the ſubſtance of Xaca is not the ſubſtance of Brama; and the other for having ſuſpected that we pleaſe the Supreme Being by virtue, without holding, at the point of death, a cow by the tail, becauſe, ſaid he, we may be virtuous at all times, and becauſe one cannot always meet with a cow juſt as one may have occaſion for her. The good women of the city were ſo terrified with two ſuch heretical propoſitions, that they would not leave the judges in peace, till ſuch time as they ordered the execution of theſe two unfortunate men.

Pythagoras judged that from the herb up to man there were many cauſes of uneaſineſs. He, however, made the judges and even

the devotees liſten to reaſon, which never happened but at that one time.

He afterwards went and preached toleration at Crotona; but one of his adverſaries ſet fire to his houſe; he was burnt—the man who had ſaved two Indians from the flames —Let thoſe eſcape who can.

Account of an Eſſay on the learning of Shakeſpeare. By Richard Farmer, M.A.

THE queſtion, whether Shakeſpeare had any conſiderable knowledge of the learned languages? has been long agitated among the critics Mr. Farmer is of opinion with thoſe, who imagine that he had not; for which he brings ſeveral arguments.

The teſtimony of Ben Johnſon (ſays our author) ſtands foremoſt; and many have held it ſufficient to decide the controverſy. In the warmeſt panegyric that ever was written, he apologizes for what he ſuppoſed the only defect in his "beloved friend:"

——— "Soul of the age!
Th' applauſe, delight, and wonder of our ſtage*"

But Johnſon is by no means our only authority. Drayton, the countryman and acquaintance of Shakeſpeare, determines his excellence to the natural brain only. Digges, a wit of the town before Shakeſpeare left the ſtage, is very ſtrong to the purpoſe:

— "Nature only helpt him, for look thorough
This whole book, thou ſhalt find he doth not borrow
One phraſe from Greeks, nor Latines imitate,
Nor once from vulgar languages tranſlate."

Suckling oppoſes his eaſier ſtrain to the ſweets of learned Johnſon. Denham aſſures us, that all he had was from old mother-wit. His native wood-notes wild, every one remembers to be celebrated by Milton.

Fuller, a diligent and equal ſearcher after truth and quibbles, declares poſitively, that "his learning was very little, —— that nature was all the art uſed upon him, as he himſelf, if alive, would confeſs it, when he apologized for his untutored lines to his noble patron the earl of Southampton.

"Shakeſpeare however hath frequent alluſions to the facts and fables of antiquity."—I will endeavour to ſhew how they came to his acquaintance.

It is notorious, that much of his matter of fact knowledge is deduced from Plutarch; but in what language he read him, has yet been the queſtion. Take a few inſtances, which will elucidate this matter ſufficiently.

In the third act of Anthony and Cleopatra, Octavius repreſents to his courtiers the imperial pomp of thoſe illuſtrious lovers, and the arrangement of their dominion,

——— "Unto her
He gave the 'ſtabliſhment of Egypt, made her
Of lower Syria, Cyprus, Lydia,
Abſolute queen."

Read Libya, ſays Mr. Upton,

* Ben Johnſon, in this copy of verſes, ſays that Shakeſpeare had
"Small Latin and leſs Greek."
Some read no Greek; which (ſays Mr. Farmer) was adopted, above a century ago, by a panegyriſt on Cartwright.

autho-

authoritatively, as is plain from Plutarch.

This is very true: but turn to the tranſlation, from the French of Amyot, by Thomas North, 1579, and you will at once ſee the origin of the miſtake.

"Firſt of all he did eſtabliſh Cleopatra queen of Egypt, of Cyprus, of Lydia, and the lower Syria.

Again in the fourth act:

——— "My meſſenger
He hath whipt with rods, dares me to perſonal combat,
Cæſar to Anthony. Let the old ruffian know
I have many ways to die; mean time,
Laugh at his challenge."

"What a reply is this, cries Mr. Upton: 'tis acknowledging he ſhould fall under the unequal combat. But if we read,

——— "Let th' old ruffian know
He hath many other ways to die; mean time
I laugh at his challenge."

We have the poignancy and the very repartee of Cæſar in Plutarch."

Moſt indiſputably it is the ſenſe of Plutarch, and given ſo in the modern tranſlations: But Shakeſpeare was miſled by the ambiguity of the old one, "Antonius ſent again to challenge Cæſar to fight him. Cæſar anſwered that he had many other ways to die than ſo."

In the third act of Julius Cæſar, Anthony, in his well-known harangue to the people, repeats a part of the emperor's will:

——— "To every Roman citizen he gives
To every ſev'ral man, ſeventy-five drachmas.—
Moreover he hath left you all his walks,
His private arbours, and new planted orchards,
On this ſide Tyber."

"Our author certainly wrote, ſays Mr. Theobald, on that ſide Tyber.—*Trans Tiberim—prope Cæſaris hortos.* And Plutarch, whom Shakeſpeare very diligently ſtudied, expreſsly declares, that he left the public his gardens and walks beyond the Tyber."

But hear again the old tranſlation, where Shakeſpeare's ſtudy lay: "he bequeathed unto every citizen of Rome, ſeventy-five drachmas a man, and he left his gardens and arbours unto the people, which he had on this ſide of the river Tyber."

Mr. Farmer proceeds to ſhow, that Shakeſpeare took many of the ſubjects for his plays from Engliſh authors or tranſlators, and not from books in the learned tongue.

But to come nearer to the purpoſe, what will you ſay, (ſays he) if I can ſhow you, that Shakeſpeare, when in the favourite phraſe, he had a latin claſſic in his eye, moſt aſſuredly made uſe of a tranſlation.

Proſpero in the tempeſt begins the addreſs to his ſpirits,

"Ye elves of hills, of ſtanding lakes and groves."

This ſpeech, Dr. Warburton rightly obſerves to be borrowed from Medea's in Ovid: And it proves, ſays Mr. Holt, beyond contradiction, that Shakeſpeare was perfectly acquainted with the ſentiments of the ancients on the ſubject of inchantments. The original lines are theſe,

"*Auræque, & venti, monteſque, amneſque, lacuſque,*

Diique omnes nemorum, diique omnes noctis adeſte."

The tranſlation of which by Golding is by no means literal, and Shakeſpeare hath cloſely followed it;

"Ye ayres and winds; ye elves of hills, of brookes, of woodes alone,
Of ſtanding lakes, and of the night, approche ye everych one."

In the Merchant of Venice, the Jew, as an apology for his behaviour to Anthonio, rehearſes many ſympathies and antipathies for which no reaſon can be rendered.

"Some love not a gaping pig—
And others when a bagpipe ſings i'th' noſe
Cannot contain their urine for affection."

This incident, Dr. Warburton ſuppoſes to be taken from a paſſage in Scaliger's Exercitations againſt Cardan. And, proceeds the Doctor, to make this jocular ſtory ſtill more ridiculous, Shakeſpeare, I ſuppoſe, tranſlated phorminx by bagpipes.

Here we ſeem fairly caught; for Scaliger's work was never, as the term goes, done into Engliſh. But luckily in an old book tranſlated from the French of Peter le Loier, entitled, a Treatiſe of Spectres, or ſtrange Sights, we have this identical ſtory from Scaliger; and what is ſtill more, a marginal note gives us in all probability the very fact alluded to, as well as the word of Shakeſpear, "Another gentleman of this quality liued of late in Deuon neere Exceſter, who could not endure the playing on a bagpipe."

A word in Queen Catherine's character of Wolſey, in Henry the eighth, is brought by the doctor as another argument for the learning of Shakeſpeare.

——————— "He was a man
Of an unbounded ſtomach, ever ranking
Himſelf with princes; one that by ſuggeſtion
Ty'd all the kingdom. Simony was fair play.
His own opinion was his law; i'th' preſence
He would ſay untruths, and be ever double
Both in his words and meaning. He was never
But where he meant to ruin, pitiful.
His promiſes were, as he then was, mighty;
But his performance, as he now is, nothing.
Of his own body he was ill, and gave the clergy ill example."

The word ſuggeſtion, ſays the critic, is here uſed with great propriety, and ſeeming knowledge of the Latin tongue. And he proceeds to ſettle the ſenſe of it from the late Roman writers and their gloſſers: But Shakeſpeare's knowledge was from Holingſhed; he follows him verbatim.

"This cardinal was of a great ſtomach, for he compted himſelf equal with princes, and by craftie ſuggeſtion got into his hands innumerable treaſure: He forced little on ſimonie, and was not pitiful, and ſtood affectionate in his own opinion: In open preſence he would lie and ſeie untruth, and was double both in ſpeech and meaning: He would promiſe much and perform little: He was vicious of his bodie, and gaue the clergie euil example." And it is one of the articles of his impeachment

peachment in Dr. Fiddes's collections, "That the ſaid Lord Cardinal got a bull for the ſuppreſſing certain houſes of religion, by his untrue ſuggeſtion to the pope."

A ſtronger argument hath been brought from the plot of Hamlet. Dr. Grey and Mr. Whalley aſſure us, that for this Shakeſpeare muſt have read Saxo Grammaticus in the original, for no tranſlation hath been made into any modern language. But the misfortune is that he did not take it from Saxo at all; a novel called the hiſtorie of Hamblet was his original: a fragment of which, in black letter, I have ſeen in the hands of a very curious and intelligent gentleman.

Mr. Farmer takes notice of the ſuppoſition that the Comedy of Errors is founded on the Menæchmi, which is (ſays he) notorious: Nor is it leſs ſo, that a tranſlation of it by W. W. perhaps William Warner, the author of Albion's England, was extant in the time of Shakeſpeare *.

But the ſheet-anchor holds faſt: Shakeſpeare himſelf hath left ſome tranſlations from Ovid.

Shakeſpeare was not the author of theſe tranſlations, ſays Mr. Farmer, who proves them to have been written by Thomas Haywood. He proves likewiſe a book in proſe, (in which are many quotations from the claſſics) aſcribed to William Shakeſpeare, to have been written by William Stafford.

Mr. Farmer mentions many other inſtances concerning the learning of Shakeſpeare, with reſpect to the ancient languages, and makes ſeveral obſervations on his ſuppoſed knowledge of the modern ones.

We ſhall conclude with a curious circumſtance relating to Shakeſpeare's acting the ghoſt in his own Hamlet, in which he is ſaid to have failed.

Dr. Lodge, ſays Mr. Farmer, who as well as his quondam colleague Greene, was ever peſtering the town with pamphlets, publiſhed one in the year 1596, called "Wits Miſerie, and the Worlds Madnaſſe, diſcovering the devils incarnate of this age." One of theſe devils is Hate-vertue, who, ſays the doctor, "looks as pale as the viſard of the Ghoſt, which cried ſo miſerably at the theatre, like an oiſter-wife, *Hamlet Revenge.*"

An eſſay on the expreſſion of the paſſions in painting, tranſlated from the Italian of the celebrated Algarotti.

MANY have written, and among the reſt, the famous Le Brun, on the various changes, that, according to various paſſions, happen in the muſcles of the face, which is, as it were, the dumb tongue of the ſoul. They obſerve, for example, that in fits of anger, the face reddens, the muſcles of the lips puff out, the eyes ſparkle; and that on the contrary, in fits of melancholy, the eyes grow motionleſs and dead, the face pale, and the lips ſink in. It may be of ſervice to a painter to read theſe, and ſuch other remarks; but it will be of infinitely more ſervice to ſtudy them in nature itſelf, from

* This, we are told, in the preface of Mr. Thornton's tranſlation of the Comedies of Plautus, juſt publiſhed, is in the collection of Mr. Garrick, and is dated 1595.

which they have been borrowed, and which exhibits them in that lively manner, which neither tongue nor pen can expreſs.

But if a painter is to have immediate recourſe to nature in any thing, it is particularly in treating thoſe very minute, and almoſt imperceptible differences, by which, however, things very different from each other, are often expreſſed. This is particularly the caſe with regard to the paſſions of laughing and crying, as in theſe, however contrary, the muſcles of the face operate nearly in the ſame manner.

As the famous Pietro de Cortona was one day finiſhing the face of a crying child, in a repreſentation of the iron age, with which he was adorning the floor, called the hot bath, in the royal palace of Pitti, Ferdinand II. who happened to be looking over him for his amuſement, could not forbear expreſſing his approbation, by crying out, oh! how well that child cries! to whom the able artiſt, — Has your majeſty a mind to ſee how eaſy it is to make children laugh? behold, I'll prove it in an inſtant; and taking up his pencil, by giving the contour of the mouth a concave turn downwards, inſtead of the convex upwards, which it before had, and with little or no alteration in any other part of the face, he made the child, who a little before ſeemed ready to burſt its heart with crying, appear in equal danger of burſting its ſides with immoderate laughter; and then, by reſtoring the altered features to their former poſition, he ſoon ſet the child a crying again.

According to Leonardo da Vinci, the beſt maſters that a painter can have recourſe to in this branch, are thoſe dumb men, who have found out the method of expreſſing their ſentiments by the motion of their hands, eyes, eye-brows, and in ſhort every other part of the body. This advice, no doubt, is very good, but then ſuch geſtures muſt be imitated with great ſobriety and moderation, leſt they ſhould appear too ſtrong and exaggerated, and the piece ſhould ſhew nothing but pantomimes, when ſpeaking figures alone are to be exhibited, and ſo become theatrical and ſecond-hand, or at leaſt look like the copy of theatrical and ſecond-hand nature.

We are told ſtrange things of the ancient painters of Greece in regard to expreſſion, eſpecially of Ariſtides, who, in a picture of his, repreſenting a woman wounded to death at a ſiege, with a child crawling to her breaſt, makes her afraid, leſt the child, when ſhe was dead, ſhould for want of milk, ſuck her blood. A Medea murdering her children by Timomachus, was likewiſe much cried up, as the ingenious artiſt contrived to expreſs at once in her countenance, both the fury that hurried her on to the commiſſion of ſo great a crime, and the tenderneſs of a mother, that ſeemed to with-hold her from it. Rubens attempted to expreſs ſuch a double effect in the face of Mary of Medicis, ſtill in pain from her laſt labour, and at the ſame time, full of joy at the birth of a Dauphin. And in the countenance of Sancta Polonia, painted by Tierpolo for St. Anthony's church at Padua, one may, I think, clearly read a mixture of pain from the wound given her by the executioner, and of pleaſure from the proſpect of paradiſe opened to her by it.

Few,

Few, to ſay the truth, are the examples of ſtrong expreſſion afforded by the Venetian, Flemiſh, or Lombard ſchools. Deprived of that great happineſs, the happineſs of being able to contemplate at leiſure the works of the ancients, the pureſt ſources of perfection in point of deſign, expreſſion, and character, and having nothing but nature conſtantly before their eyes, they made ſtrength of colouring, blooming complexion, and the grand effects of the chiaro oſcuro, their principal ſtudy; they aimed more at charming the ſenſes, than at captivating the underſtanding. The Venetians, in particular, ſeem to have placed their whole glory in ſetting off their pieces with all that rich variety of perſonages and dreſs, which their capital is continually receiving, by means of its extenſive commerce, and which attracts ſo much the eyes of all thoſe who viſit it. I doubt much if in all the pictures of Paul Veroneſe, there is to be found a bold and judicious expreſſion, or one of thoſe attitudes, which, as Petrarch expreſſes it, ſpeak without words; unleſs perhaps, it be that remarkable one in his marriage-feaſt at Cana in Galilee, and which, I don't remember to have ſeen taken notice of before. At one end of the table, and directly oppoſite to the bridegroom, whoſe eyes are fixed upon her, there appears a woman in red, holding up to him the ſkirt of her garment, as much as to ſay, I ſuppoſe, that the wine miraculouſly produced, was exactly of the colour with the ſtuff on her back. And in fact it is red wine we ſee in the cups and pitchers. But all this while, the faces of the company betray not the leaſt ſign of wonder at ſo extraordinary a miracle. They all in a manner appear intent upon nothing but eating, drinking, and making merry. Such in general is the ſtyle of the Venetian ſchool. The Florentine, over which Michael Angelo preſided, above all things curious of deſign, was moſt minutely and ſcrupulouſly exact in point of anatomy; on this ſhe ſet her heart, and took ſingular pleaſure in diſplaying it; not only elegance of form, and nobleneſs of invention, but likewiſe ſtrength of expreſſion, triumph in the Roman ſchool, nurſed as it were among the works of the Greeks, and in the boſom of a city which had once been the ſeminary of learning and politeneſs. Here it was, that Dominichino and Pouſſin, both great maſters of expreſſion, refined themſelves, as appears more particularly by the St. Jerom of the one, and the death of Germanicus, or the ſlaughter of the innocents, by the other.

Here it was, that Raphael aroſe, the ſovereign maſter of his art. One would imagine that pictures, which are the books of the ignorant, and of the ignorant only, he had undertaken to make the inſtructors even of the learned. One would imagine, that he intended in ſome meaſure, to juſtify Quintilian, who affirms, that painting has more power over us than all the arts of rhetoric. There is not indeed a ſingle picture of Raphael, from the ſtudy of which, thoſe who are curious in the point of expreſſion may not reap great benefit, particularly his martyrdom of St. Felicitas, his Magdalene in the houſe of the Phariſee, his transfiguration, his Joſeph explaining

plaining to Pharaoh his dream, a piece ſo highly rated by Pouſſin. His ſchool of Athens, in the Vatican, is to all intents and purpoſes, a ſchool of expreſſion. Among the many miracles of art, with which this piece abounds, I ſhall ſingle out that of the four boys attending on a mathematician, who ſtooping to the ground, his compaſſes in his hand, is giving them the demonſtration of a theorem; one of the boys, recollected within himſelf, keeps back, with all the appearance of profound attention to the reaſoning of the maſter, another by the briſkneſs of his attitude diſcovers a greater quickneſs of apprehenſion, while the third, who has already ſeized the concluſion, is endeavouring to beat it into the fourth, who, ſtanding motionleſs, with open arms, a ſtaring countenance, and an unſpeakable air of ſtupidity in his looks, will never perhaps be able to make any thing of the matter; and it is probably from this very group, that Albani, who ſtudied Raphael ſo cloſely, drew the following precept, viz.

"That it behoves a painter to expreſs more circumſtances than one by every attitude, and ſo to employ his figures, that by barely ſeeing what they are actually about one may be able to gueſs, both what they have been already doing, and are next going to do." This I know to be a difficult precept; but I know too, that it is only by a due obſervance of it, the eye and the mind can be made to hang in ſuſpenſe on a painted piece of canvaſs. It is expreſſion, that a painter, ambitious to ſoar in his profeſſion, muſt above all things labour to perfect himſelf in. It is the laſt goal of his art, as Socrates proves to Parrhaſius. It is in expreſſion that dumb poetry conſiſts, and what the prince of our poets calls a viſible language.

A letter from the Abbe Metaſtaſio on the muſical drama, addreſſed to the author of an eſſay on the union of muſic and poetry.

SIR,

YOU are not miſtaken; I read your book with the greateſt ſurpriſe. By this eſſay alone, we can form a judgment of the acuteneſs of your wit, the ſolidity of your taſte, and the depth of your knowledge in the arts. There is no Italian, at leaſt as far as I know, who has carried his views and reflections ſo near to the firſt ſources of that lively and delicate pleaſure, which is produced from the preſent ſyſtem of our muſical drama, and which is ſtill capable of farther improvement.

Your ingenious and particular analyſis of the meaſure and cadence of our airs; the dexterity by which you point out, in a manner intirely new, the neceſſity of diſplaying and ſetting off the chief motive in all adventitious ornaments; the judicious compariſon you draw on that ſubject, between the muſical art, and that of deſign in painting, wherein the parts untouched by the pencil, ſhould always be perceived amidſt the drapery: Your remarks on the climax of gradual progreſſions, by means of which, in paſſing from the ſimple to the compound recitative, we ſhould imitate thoſe changes that are produced,

duced, by playing with the violence of our paſſions, and many other parts of your learned diſſertation, which I omit, to avoid tranſcribing the whole, are ſtill leſs valuable for the truth which is peculiar to them, than on account of the prodigious advantages, that may be drawn from them by ſuch artiſts as are capable of unvailing them, and applying uſeful and ſuitable obſervations. I owe you my thanks, both as an author and as an Italian, and I give them you with the greateſt pleaſure. But, jealous as I may be of the good ſenſe of a judge like you, yet as a poet I would chuſe that my own art ſhould loſe nothing, by the preference you have given to muſic, in regarding this as the principal object of the drama, and in attributing its progreſs to its being diſengaged from the ſhackles of poetry.

When muſic, in concert with poetry, aſpires to ſuperiority, it deſtroys poetry, and loſes itſelf. It would be a great abſurdity to ſuppoſe, that the habiliments could ever be capable of meriting more regard, or attracting more attention than the very perſon for whom they were deſigned. My dramatic pieces are much better received in all parts of Italy, when they are ſimply declaimed, than when they are ſung in air or recitative. Make the ſame trial of the fineſt piece of muſic, ſtript of the ornament of words, do you imagine it will ſtand the teſt? Thoſe airs called *bravura*, the too frequent uſe of which you juſtly condemn, are directly the laſt effort of muſic, endeavouring to uſurp an empire over poetry. Muſic, in theſe airs, pays no regard to ſituation or characters, neither doth it intereſt our paſſions, ſentiments, or reaſon. It only diſplays its native charms; but then, what pleaſure, what applauſe doth it excite? A pleaſure that ariſes merely from novelty and ſurpriſe; ſuch plaudits as cannot be juſtly refuſed to a rope-dancer, whoſe performance exceeds the expectation of the public.

Yet proud of this ſucceſs, our modern muſic has inſolently revolted againſt poetry, it has neglected the true and genuine expreſſion, and has conſidered words but as a ſervile vehicle, which muſt ſubmit to all its capricious extravagances in oppoſition to the rules of good ſenſe. The theatre no longer reſounds, but with the airs called *bravura*, and muſic has thus haſtened its own fall, when it had before occaſioned the ruin of the drama.

Thoſe pleaſures which make no impreſſion on the underſtanding, or which intereſt not the affections, are of very ſhort duration. It is certain mankind eaſily yield to mechanical ſenſations, when they are agreeable, and have the force of novelty and ſurpriſe, but they cannot abſolutely renounce their reaſoning faculty, for the bare ſatisfaction of being pleaſed. The inconveniency I here complain of, is now arrived at ſo intolerable an heighth, as to make it neceſſary, from this moment, that muſic, as a rebellious ſlave, ſhould either again ſubmit to its lawful ſovereign, which can adorn it with ſuch grace and beauty, or that it ſhould totally withdraw, and blend itſelf no more with poetry, and let poetry for the future be ſatisfied with its own proper melody; whilſt muſic ſhall be content with regulating the har-

harmony of a concert, or preſiding over the movements of a dance, without ever meddling with the affairs of the buſkin. I have the honour to be, &c.

An Eſſay on Elegies.

THE critics have been very laborious in ſettling the boundaries of paſtoral writing; and in the delicacy of their judgment, have ſtruck many compoſitions both of Theocritus and Virgil out of the liſt, of which it may be ſaid, as Pope *handſomely* ſays of his own, if they are not paſtorals, they are ſomething better. It were to be wiſhed that they had uſed alſo the ſame judicial ſeverity, in aſcertaining the nature of elegy; though by that means, many a *putter* together of long and ſhort verſe in Latin, and many an alternate rhymiſt in Engliſh, had been at a loſs to know what ſpecies of poetry he wrote in. The poems of Tyrtæus are, it is true, *called* elegies, but with much the ſame propriety, as if we were to call the piſcatory eclogues of Sannazarius, paſtorals; they walk, indeed, in the meaſure of elegy, but breathe all the ſpirit of the ode.

The elegiac muſe ſeems to be the natural companion of diſtreſs; and the immediate feelings of the heart, the object of all her expreſſion. Hence ſhe is generally called in to the aſſiſtance of deſpairing lovers, who, having received their death's wound from their miſtreſs's eyes, breathe out their amorous ditties, and, like the dying ſwan, expire in harmony. What the elegies of Callimachus were, the learned can only conjecture; but they muſt have been better than thoſe of his profeſſed imitator Propertius, or antiquity had never been ſo laviſh in their commendation. In Propertius, we ſee the verſifying ſcholar, who perhaps never loved any woman at all: in Ovid, the poet, and the man of gallantry, who would intrigue with every woman he met; while the elegant Tibullus, one of love's devoted ſlaves, as he always ſpeaks from his own heart, makes a forcible impreſſion upon ours.

The hopes, fears, and anxieties, with all the tumults of paſſion which diſtract the lover's breaſt, will not give him time to think of the mode of expreſſion, or to fetch his alluſions from books; nature is contented to deliver herſelf with perſpicuity, and where the ſentiment is natural, the phraſe cannot be too ſimple. Upon no ſubject whatever have ſo many prettineſſes and abſurd conceits been invented as love; yet, ſurely where the head has been ſo painfully laborious, we may ſafely pronounce the heart to have been perfectly at eaſe. —— Love is not ingenious; though the affected Italians, and ridiculous French poets of the laſt century, not to mention our own Cowley, have brought their judgment in queſtion, by an exuberant diſplay of falſe wit. The plaintive muſe is generally repreſented to us, as

Paſſis elegia capillis.

"as one that diſcards all ſhew, and appears in diſhevelled locks; but the politer moderns are for putting her hair into papers; and whether the complaint turns upon the death of a friend, or the loſs of a miſtreſs, the paſſion muſt ſtand ſtill,

ſtill, till the expreſſion is got ready to introduce it. When we are truly affected, we have no leiſure to think of art: "Simplex & ingenua eſt mœroris vox; flebilis, intermiſſa, fracta, conciſa oratio*." Then our language is unadorned, and unembarraſſed with epithets; and perhaps, in that book, in which there are more inſtances of true and ſublime ſimplicity, than all the ancients together, there are leſs epithets to be met with than in any authors whatever: and I cannot help thinking the ill ſucceſs many poets have met with in paraphraſing thoſe divine writers, has been principally owing to their weakening the ſublimity of the poetry, by idle deſcription, and clogging the ſimplicity of the ſentiment with the affected frippery of epithetical ornament.

Elegy, it muſt be confeſſed, has often extended her province, and the moral contemplations of the poet have ſometimes worn her melancholy garb. As in the celebrated poem of Mr. Gray, written in a church-yard. For though ſhe is generally the ſelfiſh mourner of domeſtic diſtreſs, whether it be upon the loſs of a friend, or diſappointment in love; ſhe ſometimes enlarges her reflections upon univerſal calamities, and with a becoming dignity, as in the inſpired writers, pathetically weeps over the fall of nations.

In ſhort, whatever the ſubject is, the language of this ſpecies of poetry ſhould be ſimple and unaffected, the thoughts natural and pathetic, and the numbers flowing and harmonious. Mr. Maſon has written elegies, with ſome ſucceſs: but whoever examines them, in expectation of meeting theſe requiſites, will be diſappointed; he will be ſometimes pleaſed indeed; but ſeldom ſatisfied. For, in his moral eſſays, or epiſtles, or any thing but elegies, the ſentiments, which are but thinly ſcattered, though they glitter with the glare of expreſſion, and *a*mble *a*long by the *a*rtful *a*id of *a*lliteration:

"Play round the head, but come not near the heart."

Yet, even though we can ſee the labour the poet has been at, in culling his words, and pairing his epithet with his ſubſtantive, his ſucceſs has not been always equal to his labours. There is, indeed, too apparently in his poems, the *curioſitas verborum*; but not always the *curioſa felicitas*.

I cannot take leave of this ſubject, without indulging myſelf in one remark, which may perhaps be of uſe to thoſe poets who have never read, and are determined to write. The elegy, ever ſince Mr. Gray's excellent one in the church-yard, has been in alternate rhime, which is by many ridiculouſly imagined to be a new meaſure adapted to plaintive ſubjects, introduced by that ingenious author, whereas it is heroic verſe, and to be met with in Dryden's Annus Mirabilis; and all through the long and tedious poem of Davenant's Gondibert. The couplet is equally proper for this kind of poetry, as the alternate rhyme; and though Gray and Hammond have excelled in the laſt, Pope's elegy on the death of an unfortunate young lady, will prove thoſe numbers equally expreſſive and harmonious; nor ſhall I doubt to place our Engliſh ballads, ſuch as have been written by Rowe, Gay,

* Lowth's Prelect.

Gay, and the natural, eaſy Shenſtone, in the rank of elegy; as they partake more of the ſimple pathetic, and diſplay the real feelings of the heart, with leſs parade, than thoſe affected compoſitions of claſſical labour.

Two letters from Mr. Everard, F. S. M. containing an adventure, of which he was a witneſs, at the quick-ſilver mine of Idra. Tranſlated from the Italian juſt publiſhed.

Dear Sir,

THE pleaſure I always take in writing to you wherever I am, and whatever doing, in ſome meaſure diſpels my preſent uneaſineſs; an uneaſineſs cauſed at once by the diſagreeable aſpect of every thing round me, and the more diſagreeable circumſtances of the count Alberti, with whom you were once acquainted. You remember him one of the gayeſt, moſt agreeable perſons at the court of Vienna; at once the example of the men, and the favourite of the fair ſex. I often heard you repeat his name with eſteem, as one of the few that did honour to the preſent age, as poſſeſſed of generoſity and pity in the higheſt degree; as one who made no other uſe of fortune but to alleviate the diſtreſſes of mankind. That gentleman, Sir, I wiſh I could ſay, is now no more; yet, too unhappily for him, he exiſts, but in a ſituation more terrible than the moſt gloomy imagination can conceive.

After paſſing through ſeveral parts of the Alps, and having viſited Germany, I thought I could not well return home without viſiting the quick-ſilver mines at Idra, and ſeeing thoſe dreadful ſubterranean caverns, where thouſands are condemned to reſide, ſhut out from all hopes of ever ſeeing the chearful light of the ſun, and obliged to toil out a miſerable life under the whips of imperious taſk-maſters. Imagine to yourſelf, an hole in the ſide of a mountain, of above five yards over; down this you are let, in a kind of bucket, more than an hundred fathom, the proſpect growing ſtill more gloomy, yet ſtill widening, as you deſcend. At length, after ſwinging in terrible ſuſpence for ſome time in this precarious ſituation, you at length reach the bottom, and tread on the ground, which, by its hollow ſound under your feet, and the reverberations of the echo, ſeems thundering at every ſtep you take. In this gloomy and frightful ſolitude, you are enlightened by the feeble gleam of lamps, here and there diſpoſed, ſo as that the wretched inhabitants of theſe manſions can go from one part to another without a guide. And yet, let me aſſure you, that though they by cuſtom could ſee objects very diſtinctly by theſe lights, I could ſcarce diſcern, for ſome time, any thing, not even the perſon who came with me to ſhew me theſe ſcenes of horror.

From this deſcription, I ſuppoſe, you have but a diſagreeable idea of the place; yet let me aſſure you, that it is a palace, if we compare the habitation with the inhabitants. Such wretches my eyes never yet beheld. The blackneſs of their viſages only ſerves to cover an horrid paleneſs, cauſed by the noxious qualities of the mineral they are employed in procuring. As they,

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in general, conſiſt of malefactors condemned for life to this taſk, they are fed at the public expence; but they ſeldom conſume much proviſion, as they loſe their appetites in a ſhort time; and commonly in about two years expire, from a total contraction of all the joints of the body.

In this horrid manſion I walked after my guide for ſome time, pondering on the ſtrange tyranny and avarice of mankind, when I was accoſted by a voice behind me, calling me by name, and enquiring after my health with the moſt cordial affection. I turned and ſaw a creature all black and hideous, who approached me, and with a moſt piteous accent demanding, "Ah! Mr. Everard, don't you know me!" Good God, what was my ſurpriſe, when, through the veil of his wretchedneſs, I diſcovered the features of my old and dear friend Alberti. I flew to him with affection: and after a tear of condolence, aſked how he came there? To this he replied, that having fought a duel with a general of the Auſtrian infantry againſt the emperor's command, and having left him for dead, he was obliged to fly into one of the foreſts of Iſtria, where he was firſt taken, and afterwards ſheltered by ſome banditti, who had long infeſted that quarter. With theſe he had lived for nine months, till, by a cloſe inveſtiture of the place in which they were concealed, and after a very obſtinate reſiſtance, in which the greater part of them were killed, he was taken and carried to Vienna, in order to be broke alive upon the wheel. However, upon arriving at the capital, he was quickly known, and ſeveral of the aſſociates of his accuſation and danger witneſſing his innocence, his puniſhment of the rack was changed into that of perpetual confinement and labour in the mines of Idra; a ſentence, in my opinion, a thouſand times worſe than death.

As Alberti was giving me this account, a young woman came up to him, who at once I ſaw to be born for better fortune; the dreadful ſituation of the place was not able to deſtroy her beauty, and even in this ſcene of wretchedneſs, ſhe ſeemed to have charms to grace the moſt brilliant aſſembly. This lady was in fact daughter to one of the firſt families of Germany, and having tried every means to procure her lover's pardon without effect, was at laſt reſolved to ſhare his miſeries, as ſhe could not relieve them. With him ſhe accordingly deſcended into theſe manſions from whence few of the living return; and with him ſhe is contented to live, forgetting the gaieties of life; with him to toil, deſpiſing the ſplendours of opulence, and contented with the conſciouſneſs of her own conſtancy.

I am, dear Sir,

Your's, &c.

LETTER II.

Dear Sir,

MY laſt to you was expreſſive, and perhaps too much ſo, of the gloomy ſituation of my mind. I own the deplorable ſituation of the worthy man deſcribed in it, was enough to add double

ſeve-

ſeverity to the hideous manſion. At preſent, however, I have the happineſs of informing you, that I was ſpectator of the moſt affecting ſcene I ever yet beheld. Nine days after I had written my laſt, a perſon came poſt from Vienna to the little village near the mouth of the greater ſhaft. He was ſoon after followed by a ſecond, and he by a third. Their firſt inquiry was after the unfortunate count; and I happening to overhear the demand, gave them the beſt information. Two of theſe were the brother and couſin of the lady, the third was an intimate friend and fellow-ſoldier to the count: they came with his pardon, which had been procured by the general with whom the duel had been fought, and who was perfectly recovered from his wounds. I led them with all the expedition of joy down to his dreary abode, and preſented to him his friends; and informed him of the happy change in his circumſtances. It would be impoſſible to deſcribe the joy that brightened up on his grief-worn countenance; nor was the young lady's emotion leſs vivid at ſeeing her friends, and hearing of her huſband's freedom. Some hours were employed in mending the appearance of this faithful couple, nor could I without a tear behold him taking leave of the former wretched companions of his toil. To one he left his mattock, to another his working-cloaths, to a third his little houſhold utenſils, ſuch as were neceſſary for him in that ſituation. We ſoon emerged from the mine, where he once again reviſited the light of the ſun, that he had totally deſpaired of ever ſeeing. A poſt-chaiſe and four were ready the next morning to take them to Vienna, where I am ſince informed by a letter from himſelf, they are returned. The empreſs has again taken him into favour; his fortune and rank are reſtored; and he and his fair partner now have the pleaſing ſatisfaction of feeling happineſs with double reliſh, as they once knew what it was to be miſerable.

I am, dear Sir,

Your's, &c.

POETRY.

POETRY.

The remains of the twenty-fifth Idyllium of Theocritus. Tranſlated from the Greek; by Francis Fawkes, M. A.

ARGUMENT.

Hercules, having occaſion to wait upon Augéas king of Elis, meets with an old herdſman, by whom he is introduced to the king, who, with his ſon Phyleus, had come into the country to take a view of his numerous herds. Afterwards Hercules and Phyleus walk together to the city: in the way the prince, admiring the monſtrous lion's ſkin which Hercules wore, takes occaſion to enquire where he had it: this introduces an account how Hercules ſlew the Nemean lion.

The Beginning is wanting.

THE good old herdſman laid his work aſide,
And thus complacent to the chief reply'd:
'Whate'er you aſk, O ſtranger, I'll impart,
'Whate'er you wiſh, and with a chearful heart;
'For much I venerate the ſon of May,
'Who ſtands rever'd in every public way:
'Thoſe moſt he hates, of all the gods on high,
'Who the lone traveller's requeſt deny.
'The numerous flocks your eyes behold around,
'With which the vales are ſtor'd, the hills are crown'd,
'Augéas owns: o'er various walks they ſpread,
'In different meads, in different paſtures fed;
'Some on the banks of Eliſuntus ſtray,
'Some where divine Alphëus winds his way,
'Some in Buprafium, where rich wines abound,
'And ſome in this well-cultivated ground.
'And though exceeding many flocks are told,
'Each ſeparate flock enjoys a ſeparate fold.
'Here, though of oxen numerous herds are ſeen,
'Yet ſprings the herbage ever freſh and green
'In the moiſt marſh of Menius: every mead,
'And vale irriguous, where the cattle feed,

' Produce ſweet herbs, embalm'd in dewy tears,
' Whoſe fragrant virtue fattens well the ſteers.
' Behold that ſtall beyond the winding flood,
' Which to the right appears by yonder wood,
' Where the wild olive, and perennial plane,
' Grow, ſpread, and flouriſh, great Apollo's fane,
' To which the hinds, to which the ſhepherds bow,
' And deem him greateſt deity below!
' Next are the ſtalls of ſwains, whoſe labours bring
' Abundant riches to the wealthy king;
' Four times each year the fertile ſoil they plow,
' And gather thrice the harveſts which they ſow;
' The lab'ring hinds, whoſe hands the vineyards dreſs,
' Whoſe feet the grapes in purple autumn preſs,
' Know well the vaſt domain Augéas owns,
' Rich fields whoſe lap the golden ear imbrowns,
' Or ſhaded gardens, far as yonder hills,
' Whoſe brows are water'd by reſplendent rills;
' This ſpacious tract we tend with daily care,
' As fits thoſe ſwains who rural labours ſhare.
' But ſay, (and all my ſervice you ſhall claim)
' Say for what cauſe you here a ſtranger came:
' Would you the king or his attendants ſee?
' I can conduct you; only truſt to me.
' For ſuch your form, and ſuch your manly grace,
' You ſeem deriv'd from no ignoble race:
' Sure thus the gods, that boaſt celeſtial birth,
' Appear majeſtic to the ſons of earth.'
He ſpoke, and thus Jove's valiant ſon reply'd;
" My wandering ſteps let ſome kind ſhepherd guide
" To king Augéas, whom theſe realms obey;
" To ſee Augéas am I come this way.
" But if fair juſtice the good monarch draws
" To Elis, to adminiſter the laws;
" Conduct me to ſome honourable ſwain,
" Who here preſides among his rural train,
" That I to him my purpoſe may diſcloſe,
" And follow what his prudence ſhall propoſe:
" For heaven's eternal wiſdom has decreed,
" That man of man ſhould ever ſtand in need."
Thus he. The good old herdſman thus reply'd:
' Sure ſome immortal being is your guide;
' For lo! your buſineſs is already done:
' Laſt night the king, deſcendent of the ſun,
' With royal Phyleus, from the town withdrew,
' His flocks unnumber'd and his herds to view,
' Thus when great kings their own concerns explore,
' By wiſe attention they augment their ſtore.

'But let me quick, for time is on the wing,
'In yonder tent conduct you to the king.'
'This ſaid, he walk'd before his royal gueſt,
Much wondering, much revolving in his breaſt,
When at his back the lion's ſpoils he ſaw,
And in his hand the club infuſing awe.
He wiſh'd to aſk the hero, whence he ſprung?
The riſing query dy'd upon his tongue:
He fear'd the freedom might be deem'd a fault:
'Tis difficult to know another's thought.
The watchful dogs, as near the ſtalls they went,
Perceiv'd their coming by their tread and ſcent,
With open mouths from every part they run,
And bay'd inceſſant great Amphitryon's ſon;
But round the ſwain they wagg'd their tails and play'd,
And gently whining ſecret joy betray'd.
Looſe on the ground the ſtones that ready lay
Eager he ſnatch'd, and drove the dogs away;
With his rough voice he terrified them all,
Though pleas'd to find them guardians of his ſtall.
'Ye gods! (the good old herdſman thus began)
'What uſeful animals are dogs to man!
'Had heav'n but ſent intelligence to know
'On whom to rage, the friendly or the foe,
'No creature then could challenge honour more,
'But now too furious, and too fierce they roar.'
He ſpoke; the growling maſtives ceas'd to bay,
And ſtole obſequious to their ſtalls away.
The ſun now weſtward drove his radiant ſteeds,
And evening mild the noontide heat ſucceeds;
His orb declining from the paſtures calls
Sheep to their folds, and oxen to their ſtalls.
Herd following herd, it joy'd the chief to ſee
Unnumber'd cattle winding o'er the lea.
Like watery clouds ariſing thick in heaven,
By the rough ſouth, or Thracian Boreas driven;
So faſt the ſhadowy vapours mount on high,
They cover all the region of the ſky;
Still more and more the gathering tempeſt brings,
And weightier burdens on its weary wings.
Thus thickening march the cattle o'er the plain,
More than the roads or meadows can contain;
The luſty herds inceſſant bellowing keep,
The ſtalls are fill'd with ſteers, the folds with ſheep.
Though numerous ſlaves ſtand round of every kind,
All have their ſeveral offices aſſign'd.
Some tie the cow's hind legs, to make her ſtand
Still, and obedient to the milker's hand:

Some give to tender calves the ſwelling teat,
Their ſides diſtend with milky beverage ſweet,
Some form fat cheeſes with the houſewife's art,
Some drive the heifers from the bulls apart.
Augéas viſited the ſtalls around,
To ſee what ſtores in herds and flocks abound;
With curious eye he moved majeſtic on,
Join'd by Alcides and his royal ſon.
Here Hercules, of great and ſteady ſoul,
Whom mean amazement never could controll,
Admir'd ſuch droves in myriads to behold,
Such ſpreading flocks, that never could be told,
Not one king's wealth he thought them, nor of ten,
Though greateſt of the rulers over men;
The ſun, his ſire, this privilege aſſign'd,
To be in flocks and herds more rich than all mankind:
Theſe ſtill increas'd; no plague e'er render'd vain
The gainful labour of the ſhepherd-ſwain;
Year following year his induſtry was bleſt,
More calves were rear'd, and ſtill the laſt were beſt.
No cows e'er caſt their young, or e'er declin'd,
The calves were chiefly of the female kind.
With theſe three hundred bulls, a comely ſight,
Whoſe horns were crooked, and whoſe legs were white;
And twice an hundred of bright gloſſy red,
By whom the buſineſs of increaſe was ſped:
But twelve, the flower of all, exulting run
In the green paſtures, ſacred to the ſun;
The ſtately ſwan was not ſo ſilver white,
And in the meads they took ineffable delight:
Theſe, when gaunt lions from the mountain's brow
Deſcend terrific on the herds below,
Ruſh to the war, the ſavage foe they gore,
Their eyes look death, and horribly they roar.
But moſt majeſtic theſe bold bulls among
Stalk'd Phaëton, the ſturdy and the ſtrong;
So radiant, ſo refulgent from afar,
The ſhepherd-ſwains compar'd him to a ſtar.
When round the ſhoulders of the chief he ſpy'd,
Alarming ſight! the lion's tawny hide,
Full at his flank he aim'd his iron head,
And proudly doom'd the matchleſs hero dead:
But watchful Hercules, devoid of fear,
Seiz'd his left horn, and ſtopp'd his mad career;
Prone to the earth his ſtubborn neck he preſt,
Then writh'd him round, and bruis'd his ample cheſt,
At one bold puſh exerted all his ſtrength,
And high in air upheld him at arm's length.

Through

Through all the wondering train amazement ran,
Silent they gaz'd, and thought him more than man.
Phyleus and Hercules (the day far ſpent)
Left the rich paſtures, and to Elis went;
The footpath firſt, which tow'rd the city lay,
Led from the ſtalls, but narrow was the way;
Through vineyards next it paſt, and gloomy glades,
Hard to diſtinguiſh in the greenwood ſhades.
The devious way as noble Phyleus led,
To his right ſhoulder he inclin'd his head,
And ſlowly marching through the verdant grove,
Thus mild beſpoke the progeny of Jove:
'By your laſt bold atchievement it appears,
'Great chief, your fame long ſince has reach'd my ears.
'For here arriv'd a youthful Argive ſwain,
'From Helicé that borders on the main,
'Who for a truth among th' Epëans told,
'That late he ſaw a Grecian, brave and bold,
'Slay a fell lion, fell to huſbandmen,
'That in the Nemean foreſt made his den:
'Whether the chief from ſacred Argos came,
'Or proud Mycené, or Tirynthé claim
'His birth, I heard not; yet he trac'd his line,
'If true my tale, from Perſeus the divine.
'No Greek but you could ſuch a toil ſuſtain;
'I reaſon from that mighty monſter ſlain,
'A perilous encounter! whoſe rough hide
'Protects your ſhoulders, and adorns your ſide.
'Say then, if you are he, the Grecian bold,
'Of whom the Argive's wonderous tale was told:
'Say, what dread weapon drank the monſter's blood,
'And how he wander'd to the Nemean wood.
'For not in Greece ſuch ſavages are found,
'No beaſts thus huge infeſt Achaian ground;
'She breeds the ravenous wolf, the bear, the boar,
'Pernicious monſters! but ſhe breeds no more.
'Some wonder'd at accounts ſo ſtrange and new,
'Thought the Greek boaſtful, and his tale untrue.'
Thus Phyleus ſpoke, and as the path grew wide,
He walk'd attentive by the hero's ſide,
To hear diſtinct the toil-ſuſtaining man,
Who thus, obſequious to the prince, began:
"Son of Augéas, what of me you heard
"Is ſtrictly true, nor has the ſtranger err'd.
"But ſince you wiſh to know, my tongue ſhall tell,
"From whence the monſter came, and how he fell:
"Though many Greeks have mention'd this affair,
"None can the truth with certainty declare.

" 'Tis thought ſome god, by vengeful anger ſway'd,
" Sent this ſore plague for ſacrifice unpaid,
" To puniſh the Phoroneans; like a flood
" He delug'd the Piſæan fields with blood:
" The Bembinæans, miſerable men,
" Felt his chief rage, the neighbours to his den.
" The hardy taſk, this hideous beaſt to kill,
" Euryſtheus firſt enjoin'd me to fulfill,
" But hop'd me ſlain: on the bold conflict bent,
" Arm'd to the field with bow and darts I went:
" A ſolid club of rude wild olive made,
" Rough in its rugged rind my right hand ſway'd;
" On Helicon's fair hill the tree I found,
" And with the roots I wrench'd it from the ground.
" When the cloſe covert I approach'd, where lay
" The lordly lion lurking for his prey,
" I bent my bow, firm fix'd the ſtring, and ſtrait
" Notch'd on the nerve the meſſenger of fate:
" Then circumſpect I pry'd with curious eye,
" Firſt, unobſerv'd, the ravenous beaſt to ſpy.
" Now mid-day reign'd; I neither could explore
" His paw's broad print, nor hear his hideous roar;
" Nor labouring ruſtic find, nor ſhepherd-ſwain,
" Nor cowherd tending cattle on the plain,
" To point the lion's lair: fear chill'd them all,
" And kept the herds and herdſmen in the ſtall.
" I ſearch'd the groves, and ſaw my foe at length;
" Then was the moment to exert my ſtrength.
" Long ere dim evening clos'd, he ſought his den,
" Gorg'd with the fleſh of cattle and of men;
" With ſlaughter ſtain'd his ſqualid mane appear'd,
" Stern was his face, his cheſt with blood beſmear'd,
" And with his pliant tongue he lick'd his gory beard.
" Mid ſhady ſhrubs I hid myſelf with care,
" Expecting he might iſſue from his lair.
" Full at his flank I ſent a ſhaft, in vain,
" The harmleſs ſhaft rebounded on the plain.
" Stunn'd at the ſhock, from earth the ſavage rais'd
" His tawny head, and all around him gaz'd;
" Wondering from whence the feather'd vengeance flew,
" He gnaſh'd his horrid teeth, tremendous to the view.
" Vex'd that the firſt had unavailing fled,
" A ſecond arrow from the nerve I ſped:
" In his broad cheſt, the manſion of his heart,
" I lanch'd the ſhaft with ineffectual art;
" His hair, his hide, the feather'd death repell:
" Before his feet it innocently fell.
" Enrag'd, once more I try'd my bow to draw,
" Then firſt his foe the furious monſter ſaw;

He

" He lash'd his sturdy sides with stern delight,
" And rising in his rage prepar'd for fight.
" With instant ire his mane erected grew,
" His hair look'd horrid, of a brindled hue;
" Circling his back, he seem'd in fact to bound,
" And like a bow he bent his body round;
" As when the fig-tree skilful wheelers take,
" For rolling chariots rapid wheels to make;
" The fellies first, in fires that gently glow,
" Gradual they heat, and like a circle bow;
" Awhile in curves the pliant timber stands,
" Then springs at once elastic from their hands.
" On me thus from afar, his foe to wound,
" Sprung the fell lion with impetuous bound.
" My left hand held my darts direct before,
" Around my breast a thick strong garb I wore;
" My right, club-guarded, dealt a deadly blow
" Full on the temples of the rushing foe:
" So hard his skull, that, with the sturdy stroke,
" My knotted club of rough wild-olive broke:
" Yet, ere I clos'd, his savage fury fled,
" With trembling legs he stood, and nodding head;
" The forceful onset had contus'd his brain,
" Dim mists obscur'd his eyes, and agonizing pain.
" This I perceiv'd; and now, an easy prey,
" I threw my arrows and my bow away,
" And, ere the beast recover'd of his wound,
" Seiz'd his thick neck, and pinn'd him to the ground;
" With all my might on his broad back I prest,
" Lest his fell claws should tear my adverse breast;
" Then mounting, close my legs in his I twin'd
" And with my feet secur'd his paws behind;
" My thighs I guarded, and with all my strength
" Heav'd him from earth, and held him at arm's length,
" And strangled thus the fellest of the fell;
" His mighty soul descending sunk to hell.
" The conquest gain'd, fresh doubts my mind divide,
" How shall I strip the monster's shaggy hide?
" Hard task! for the tough skin repell'd the dint
" Of pointed wood, keen steel, or sharpest flint:
" Some god inspir'd me, standing still in pause,
" To flay the lion with the lion's claws,
" This I accomplish'd, and the spoil now yields
" A firm security in fighting fields:
" Thus, Phyleus, was the Nemean monster slain,
" The terror of the forest and the plain,
" That flocks and herds devour'd, and many a village
" swain."

The ſtory of Godiva. From Edge-hill, a poem. By Richard Jago. A. M.

WHEN * Edward, laſt of Egbert's royal race,
O'er ſev'n united realms the ſceptre ſway'd,
Earl Leofric, with truſt of ſov'reign pow'r,
The ſubject Mercians rul'd. His lofty ſtate
The loveliеſt of her ſex! in inward grace
Moſt lovely; wiſe, beneficent, and good,
The fair Godiva ſhar'd. A noble dame,
Of Thorold's ancient line! But pageant pomp
Charm'd not her ſaintly mind like virtuous deeds,
And tender feeling for another's woe.
Such gentle paſſions in his lofty breaſt
He cheriſh'd not; but, with deſpotic ſway,
Controul'd his vaſſal tribes, and from their toil
His luxury maintain'd. Godiva ſaw
Their plaintive looks; with grief ſhe ſaw thy arts,
O Coventry! by tyrant laws depreſs'd;
And urg'd her haughty lord, by every plea
That works on gen'rous minds, with patriot rule,
And charter'd freedom, to retrieve thy weal.
Thus pleaded ſhe, but pleaded all in vain!
Deaf was her lord; and, with a ſtern rebuke,
He will'd her ne'er again, by ſuch requeſt,
To touch his honour, or his rights invade.
What could ſhe do? Muſt his ſevere command
Check the ſtrong pleadings of benevolence?
Muſt public love to matrimonial rules
Of lordly empire, and obedience meek,
Perhaps by man too partially explain'd!
Give way? For once Godiva dar'd to think
It might not be; and, amiably perverſe!
Her ſuit renew'd. Bold was th' adventrous deed!
Yet not more bold than fair! if pitiful
Be fair, and charity, that knows no bounds.
What hadſt thou then to fear from wrath inflam'd
With ſenſe of blackeſt guilt? Rebellion, join'd
With female weakneſs, and officious zeal!
So Leofric might call the virtuous deed;
Perhaps might puniſh as befitted deed
So call'd, if love reſtrain'd not. Yet, though love
O'er anger triumph'd, and imperious rule,
Not o'er his pride; which better to maintain,
His anſwer thus he artfully return'd.
Why will the partner of my royal ſtate,
Forbidden, ſtill her wild petition urge?

* Edward the Confeſſor.

Think

Think not my breaſt is ſteel'd againſt the touch
Of ſweet humanity. Think not I hear
Regardleſs thy requeſt. If piety,
Or other motive, with miſtaken zeal,
Call'd to thy aid, pierc'd not my ſtubborn frame,
Yet to the pleader's worth, and modeſt charms,
Wou'd my fond love no trivial boon impart.
But pomp and fame forbid. That vaſſalage,
Which, thoughtleſs, thou woud'ſt tempt me to diſſolve,
Exalts our ſplendor, and augments my pow'r.
With tender boſoms form'd, and yielding hearts,
Your ſex ſoon melts at ſights of vulgar woe;
Heedleſs how glory fires the manly breaſt
With love of high pre-eminence. This flame,
In female minds, with weaker fury glows,
Oppoſing leſs the ſpecious arguments
For milder regimen, and public weal.
But plant ſome gentler paſſion in its room,
Some virtuous inſtinct ſuited to your make,
As glory is to ours, like it requir'd
A ranſom for the vulgars vaſſal ſtate,
Then wou'd the ſtrong contention ſoon evince
How falſely now thou judgeſt of my mind,
And juſtify my conduct. Thou art fair,
And chaſte as fair; with niceſt ſenſe of ſhame,
And ſanctity of thought. Thy boſom thou
Did'ſt ne'er expoſe to ſhameleſs dalliance
Of wanton eyes; nor—ill-concealing it
Beneath the treach'rous cov'ring, tempt aſide
The ſecret glance, with meditated fraud.
Go now, and lay thy modeſt garments by,
In naked beauty mount thy milk-white ſteed,
And through the ſtreets, in face of open day,
And gazing ſlaves, their fair deliv'rer ride:
Then will I own thy pity was ſincere,
Applaud thy virtue, and confirm thy ſuit.
But if thou lik'ſt not ſuch ungentle terms,
And public ſpirit yields to private ſhame,
Think then that Leofric, like thee, can feel,
Like thee, may pity, while he ſeems ſevere,
And urge thy ſuit no more. His ſpeech he clos'd,
And, with ſtrange oaths, confirm'd the deep reſolve.
Again, within Godiva's anxious breaſt
New tumults roſe. At length her female fears
Gave way, and ſweet humanity prevail'd.
Reluctant, but reſolv'd, the matchleſs fair
Gives all her naked beauty to the ſun:
Then mounts her milk-white ſteed, and, thro' the ſtreets,
Rides fearleſs; her diſhevell'd hair a veil!

That o'er her beauteous limbs luxuriant flow'd,
Like * Venus, when, upon the Tyrian ſhore,
Diſguis'd ſhe met her ſon. With gratitude,
And rev'rence low, th' aſtoniſh'd citizens
Before their great ſultana proſtrate fall,
Or to their inmoſt privacies retire.
All, but one prying ſlave! who fondly hop'd,
With venial curioſity, to gaze
On ſuch a wond'rous dame. But foul diſgrace
O'ertook the bold offender, and he ſtands,
By juſt decree, a ſpectacle abhorr'd,
And laſting monument of ſwift revenge
For thoughts impure, and beauty's injur'd charms †.

* ——— dederatque comas diffundere ventis. Virg.

† Story of Leofric and Godiva, from Sir Will. Dugdale's antiquities of Warwickſhire.

The following narrative is ſubjoin'd to ſatisfy the curioſity of ſuch as may not have a preſent opportunity of conſulting this valuable collection of antiquities. That part of the ſtory, of which no mention is made here, reſts upon other authorities, ſufficient, at leaſt, for the writer's purpoſe, though ſomewhat differently related. How far he has ſucceeded in explaining what appeared to him to be obſcure, and in giving a true meaning and conſiſtency to the whole, and thereby rendering it more credible, agreeably to thoſe ſeemingly authentic memorials which are preſerved of it, is left to the judgment of the reader. The ſtory, as taken from a MS. in Bib. Bod. and Math. Paris, is as follows:

"This Leofric wedded Godeva, a moſt beautiful and devout lady, ſiſter to one Thorold, ſheriff of Lincolnſhire, in thoſe days, and founder of Spalding-Abbey, as alſo of the ſtock and lineage of Thorold, ſheriff of that county, in the time of Kenulph, king of Mercia. Which counteſs Godeva bearing an extraordinary affection to this place, often, and earneſtly beſought her huſband, that, for the love of God, and the bleſſed Virgin, he would free it from that grievous ſervitude whereunto it was ſubject. But he rebuking her for importuning him in a matter ſo inconſiſtent with his profit, commanded that ſhe ſhould thenceforth forbear to move therein. Yet ſhe, out of her womaniſh pertinacity, continued to ſolicit him, inſomuch that he told her, if ſhe would ride on horſeback naked, from one end of the town to the other, in the ſight of all the people, he would grant her requeſt. Whereunto ſhe return'd, But will you give me leave ſo to do? And he replying, Yes; the noble lady, upon an appointed day, got on horſeback naked, with her hair looſe, ſo that it covered all her body, but the legs, and thus performing the journey, ſhe returned with joy to her huſband, who thereupon granted to the inhabitants a charter of freedom.

It is pleaſant enough to obſerve, with what earneſtneſs the above-mentioned learned writer dwells on the praiſes of this renown'd lady. "And now, before I proceed, ſays he, I have a word more to ſay of the noble counteſs Godeva, which is, that beſides her devout advancement of that pious work of his, i. e. her huſband Leofric, in this magnificent monaſtery, viz. of monks at Coventry, ſhe gave her whole treaſure thereto, and ſent for ſkilful goldſmiths, who, with all the gold and ſilver ſhe had, made croſſes, images of ſaints, and other curious ornaments." Which paſſages may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the devotion and patriotiſm of thoſe times.

Ye

Ye guardians of her rights, ſo nobly won!
Cheriſh the Muſe's labour, who, intent
On your renown, and chaſte Godiva's fame,
Hath long o'er monkiſh tales, and foul records
Attentive ponder'd, ſtudious to expound
Their dark intendment, her heroic deed
Illuſtrate, and your gay proceſſion grace.

Of Birmingham—its manufactures—iron-ore—proceſs of it.—Panegyric upon iron. From the ſame.

NOR does the barren ſoil conceal alone
The crumbly rock. Oft-times more pond'rous ore,
In ſtrata cloſe, beneath its ſurface lies,
Compact, metallic; but with earthy parts
Incruſted. Now another proceſs view,
And to the furnace the ſlow wain attend.
Here, in huge cauldrons, the rough maſs they ſtow,
Till, by the potent heat, the purer ore
Is liquified, and leaves the droſs afloat.
Then, cautious, from the glowing pond they lead
The fiery ſtream along the channel'd floor;
Where, in the mazy moulds of figur'd ſand,
Anon it hardens, and, in ingots rude,
Is to the forge convey'd; whoſe weighty ſtrokes,
Inceſſant aided by the rapid ſtream,
Spread out the ductile ore, now tapering
In lengthen'd maſſes, ready to obey
The workman's will, and take its deſtin'd form.
Soon o'er thy furrow'd pavement, Bremicham!
Ride the looſe bars obſtrep'rous; to the ſons
Of languid ſenſe, and frame too delicate,
Harſh noiſe perchance, but harmony to thine.
Inſtant innumerable hands prepare
To ſhape and mould the malleable ore.
Their heavy ſides th' inflated bellows heave,
Tugg'd by the pulley'd line, and, with their blaſt
Continuous, the ſleeping embers rouſe,
And kindle into life. Strait the rough maſs,
Plung'd in the blazing hearth, its heat contracts,
And glows tranſparent. Now, Cyclopean chief!
Quick on the anvil lay the burning bar,
And, with thy luſty fellows, on its ſides
Impreſs the weighty ſtroke See how they ſtrain
The ſwelling nerve, and lift the ſinewy * arm

* "Illi inter ſeſe magnâ vi brachia tollunt
"In numerum, verſantque tenaci forcipe ferrum." Virg.

In

In meaſur'd time; while, with their clatt'ring blows,
From ſtreet to ſtreet the propagated ſound
Increaſing echoes, and, on ev'ry ſide,
The tortur'd metal ſpreads a radiant ſhow'r.
'Tis noiſe, and hurry all! the thronged ſtreet,
The cloſe-piled warehouſe, and the buſy ſhop!
With nimble ſtroke the tinkling hammers move;
While ſlow, and weighty the vaſt ſledge deſcends,
In ſolemn baſe reſponſive, or apart,
Or ſocially conjoin'd in tuneful peal.
The rough * file grates; yet uſeful is its touch,
As ſharp corroſives to the ſchirrous fleſh,
Or, to the ſtubborn temper, keen rebuke.
How the coarſe metal brightens into fame,
Shap'd by their plaſtic hands! what ornament!
What various uſe! See there the glitt'ring knife
Of temper'd edge! The ſciſſars' double ſhaft,
Uſeleſs apart, in ſocial union join'd,
Each aiding each! Emblem how beautiful
Of happy nuptial leagues! The button round,
Plain, or imboſt, or bright with ſteely rays!
Or oblong buckle, on the lacker'd ſhoe,
With poliſh'd luſtre, bending elegant
Its ſhapely rim. But how ſhall I recount
The thronging merchandiſe? From gaudy ſigns,
The litter'd counter, and the ſhew-glaſs trim,
Seals, rings, 'twees, bodkins, crowd into my verſe,
† Too ſcanty to contain their num'rous tribes.
Nor this alone thy praiſe! With ſecret art,
Thy ſons a compound form of various grains,
And to the fire's diſſolvent pow'r commit
The precious mixture; oft, with ſleepleſs eye,
Watching the doubtful proceſs, if perchance
A purer ore may bleſs their midnight toil;
Or wiſh'd enamel clear, or ſleek japan
Meet their impatient ſight. Nor ſkilful ſtroke
Is wanting of the graver's pointed ſteel;
Nor artful pencil, o'er the poliſh'd plate
Swift ſtealing, and with glowing tints well fraught.
Thine too, of graceful form, the letter'd type!
The friend of learning, and the poet's pride!
Without thee what avail his ſplendid aims,
And midnight labours? Painful drudgery!

* "Tum ferri rigor, et argutæ lamina ſerræ,
"Tum variæ venere artes, &c." Virg.

† "Sed neque quam multæ ſpecies, nec nomina quæ ſunt,
"Eſt numerus, neque enim numero comprendere refert." Virg.

And

And pow'rleſs effort! But that thought of thee
Imprints freſh vigour on his panting breaſt,
As thou ere long ſhalt on his work impreſs;
And, with immortal fame, his praiſe repay.
Hail, native Britiſh ore! of thee poſſeſs'd,
We envy not Golconda's ſparkling mines,
Nor thine Potoſi! nor thy kindred hills,
Teeming with gold. What? tho' in outward form
Leſs fair? not leſs thy worth. To thee we owe
More riches than Peruvian mines can yield,
Or Motezuma's crowded magazines,
And palaces cou'd boaſt, though roof'd with gold.
Splendid barbarity! and rich diſtreſs!
Without the ſocial arts, and uſeful toil;
That poliſh life, and civilize the mind!
Theſe are thy gifts, which gold can never buy.
Thine is the praiſe to cultivate the ſoil;
To bear its inmoſt ſtrata to the ſun;
To break and meliorate the ſtiffen'd clay,
And, from its cloſe confinement, ſet at large
Its vegetative virtue. Thine it is
The with'ring hay, and ripen'd grain to ſheer,
And waft the joyous harveſt round the land.
Go now, and ſee if, to the ſilver's edge,
The reedy ſtalk will yield its bearded ſtore,
In weighty ſheafs. Or if the ſtubborn marle,
In ſidelong rows, with eaſy force will riſe
Before the ſilver plowſhare's glitt'ring point.
Or wou'd your gen'rous horſes tread more ſafe
On plated gold? Your wheels, with eaſier gait,
On golden axles move? Then grateful own,
Britannia's ſons! Heav'n's providential love,
That gave you real wealth, not wealth in ſhew,
Whoſe price in bare imagination lies,
And artificial compact. Thankful ply
Your iron arts, and all the world is yours.
Hail, native ore! without thy pow'rful aid,
We ſtill had liv'd in huts, with the green ſod,
And broken branches roof'd. Thine is the plane,
The chiſſel thine; which ſhape the well-arch'd dome,
The graceful portico, and ſculptur'd walls.
Wou'd ye your coarſe, unſightly mines exchange
For Mexiconian hills? to tread on gold,
As vulgar ſand? with naked limbs, to brave
The cold, bleak air? to urge the tedious chace,
By painful hunger ſtung, with artleſs toil,
Thro' gloomy foreſts, where the ſounding axe,
To the ſun's beam, ne'er op'd the cheerful glade,

Nor

Nor culture's healthful face was ever ſeen?
In ſqualid huts to lay your weary limbs,
Bleeding, and faint, and ſtrangers to the bliſs
Of home-felt eaſe, which Britiſh ſwains can earn,
With a bare ſpade; but ill, alas! cou'd earn,
Were it of gold? Such the poor Indian's lot!
Who ſtarves 'midſt gold, like miſers o'er their bags;
Not with like guilt! Hail, native Britiſh ore!
For thine is trade, that with its various ſtores,
Sails round the world, and viſits ev'ry clime,
From Nova Zembla to th' Antartic pole;
And makes the treaſures of each clime her own,
By gainful commerce of her woolly veſts,
Wrought by the ſpiky comb; or ſteely wares,
From the coarſe maſs, by ſtubborn toil, refin'd.
Such are thy peaceful gifts! And war to thee
Its beſt ſupport, and brighteſt horror owes,
The glitt'ring faulchion, and the thund'ring tube!
At whoſe tremendous gleam, and volley'd fire,
Barbarian kings fly from their uſeleſs hoards,
And yield them all to thy ſuperior pow'r.

PROLOGUE *at the Opening of the Theatre Royal in Edinburgh.*

Written by James Boſwell, Eſq. Spoken by Mr. Roſs.

SCOTLAND, for learning and for arms renown'd
In ancient annals, is with luſtre crown'd;
And ſtill ſhe ſhares whate'er the world can yield
Of letter'd fame, or glory in the field:
In ev'ry diſtant clime Great Britain knows,
The thiſtle ſprings promiſcuous with the roſe.
While in all points with other lands ſhe vied,
The ſtage alone to Scotland was denied;
Miſtaken zeal, in times of darkneſs bred,
O'er the beſt minds its gloomy vapours ſpread:
Taſte and religion were ſuppoſed at ſtrife,
And 'twas a ſin—to view this glaſs of life!
When the muſe ventur'd the ungracious taſk,
To play eluſive with unlicens'd maſk,
Mirth was reſtrain'd by ſtatutory awe,
And tragic greatneſs fear'd the ſcourge of law,
Illuſtrious heroes arrant vagrants ſeem'd,
And gentleſt nymphs were ſturdy beggars deem'd.
This night, lov'd George's free enlightened age,
Bids *royal favour* ſhield the Scottiſh ſtage:
His royal favour ev'ry boſom cheers,
The drama now with dignity appears.

Hard

Hard is *my* fate if murmurings there be,
Becauſe the favour is announc'd by me.
Anxious, alarm'd, and aw'd by ev'ry frown,
May I intreat the candour of the town?
You ſee me here by no unworthy art;
My *all* I venture—where I've fix'd my heart.
Fondly ambitious of an honeſt fame,
My humble hopes your kind indulgence claim.
I wiſh to hold no *right* but by *your* choice;
I'll riſk my PATENT on the PUBLIC VOICE.

On the much-lamented Death of the Marquis of Taviſtock.*

Sunt lacrymæ rerum, & mentem mortalia tangunt. VIRG.

——————VIrtuous Youth!
Thank Heav'n, I knew thee not—I ne'er ſhall feel
The keen regret thy drooping friends ſuſtain;
Yet will I drop the ſympathizing tear,
And this due tribute to thy memory bring;
Not that thy noble birth provokes my ſong,
Or claims ſuch offering from the Muſes ſhrine;
But that thy ſpotleſs undiſſembling heart,
Thy unaffected manners, all-unſtain'd
With pride of pow'r, and inſolence of wealth;
Thy probity, benevolence, and truth,
(Beſt inmates of man's ſoul) for ever loſt,
Cropt, like fair flow'rs, in life's meridian bloom,
Fade undiſtinguiſh'd in the ſilent grave.

O Bedford!—pardon, if a Muſe unknown,
Smit with thy heart-felt grief, directs her way
To ſorrow's dark abode, where thee ſhe views,
Thee, wretched ſire, and pitying, hears thee mourn
Thy Ruſſel's fate—"Why was he thus belov'd?
"Why did he bleſs my life?"—Fond parent, ceaſe;
Count not his virtues o'er—Hard taſk!—Call forth
Thy firm hereditary ſtrength of mind.
Lo! where the ſhade of thy great anceſtor,
Fam'd Ruſſel ſtands, and chides thy vain complaint
His philoſophic ſoul, with patience arm'd,
And Chriſtian virtue brav'd the pangs of death;
Admir'd, belov'd, he dy'd; (if right I deem),
Not more lamented than thy virtuous ſon:
Yet calm thy mind; ſo may the lenient hand
Of Time, all-ſoothing Time, thy pangs aſſwage,
Heal thy ſad wound, and cloſe thy days in peace.

* Occaſioned by a fall from his horſe.

See where the object of his filial love,
His mother, loſt in tears, laments his doom:
Speak comfort to her ſoul:——
O! from the ſacred fount, where flow the ſtreams
Of heav'nly conſolation, O! one drop,
To ſooth his hapleſs wife! ſharp ſorrow preys
Upon her tender frame—Alas, ſhe faints,—
She falls! ſtill graſping in her hand
The picture of her lord—All-gracious Heav'n!
Juſt are thy ways, and righteous thy decrees,
But dark and intricate; elſe why this meed
For tender faithful love; this ſad return
For innocence and truth? was it for this
By Virtue and the ſmiling Graces led,
(Fair types of long ſucceeding years of joy),
She twin'd the votive wreath at Hymen's ſhrine,
So Soon to fade and die?—Yet O! reflect,
Chaſte partner of his life! you ne'er deplor'd
His alienated heart: (diſaſtrous ſtate!
Condition worſe than death!) the ſacred torch
Burnt to the laſt its unremitted fires!
No painful ſelf-reproach haſt thou to feel;
The conſcious thought of every duty paid,
This ſweet reflection ſhall ſupport thy mind.
Be this thy comfort:—Turn thine eyes a while,
Nor with that lifeleſs picture feed thy woe;
Turn yet thine eyes; ſee how they court thy ſmiles.
Thoſe infant pledges of connubial joy!
Dwell on their looks,—and trace his image there:
And O! ſince Heav'n, in pity to thy loſs,
For thee one future bleſſing has in ſtore,
Cheriſh that tender hope—Hear reaſon's voice;
Huſh'd be the ſtorms that vex thy troubled breaſt,
And angels guard thee in the hour of pain.
Accept this ardent pray'r; a muſe forgive,
Who for thy ſorrow draws the penſive ſigh,
Who feels thy grief, tho' erſt in frolic hour
She tun'd her comic rhymes to mirth and joy,
Unſkill'd (I ween) in lofty verſe, unus'd
To plaintive ſtrains, yet by ſoft pity led,
Trembling reviſits the Pierian vale;
There culls each fragrant flow'r, to deck the tomb
Where generous Ruſſel lies. ———

ODE *for the* NEW YEAR, *Jan.* 1, 1767.

WHEN firſt the rude, o'er-peopled north,
Pour'd his prolific offspring forth
At large, in alien climes, to roam,
And ſeek a newer better home,
From the bleak mountain's barren head,
The marſhy vale, th' ungrateful plain,
From cold and penury they fled
To warmer ſuns and Ceres' golden reign.
At ev'ry ſtep the breezes blew
Soft and more ſoft: the lengthen'd view
Did fairer ſcenes expand:
Unconſcious of approaching foes
The farm, the town, the city roſe,
To tempt the ſpoiler's hand.
Not Britain ſo. For nobler ends
Her willing, daring ſons ſhe ſends,
Fraught like the fabled car of old,
Which ſcatter'd bleſſings as it roll'd.
From cultur'd fields, from fleecy downs,
From vales that wear eternal bloom,
From peopled farms, and buſy towns,
Where ſhines the ploughſhare, and where ſounds the loom,
To ſandy deſarts, pathleſs woods,
Impending ſteeps, and headlong floods
She ſends th' induſtrious ſwarm:
To where, ſelf-ſtrangled Nature lies,
'Till ſocial art ſhall bid her riſe
From chaos into form.
Thus George and Britain bleſs mankind,—
And, leſt the parent realm ſhould find
Her numbers ſhrink, with flag unfurl'd
She ſtands th' aſylum of the world.
From foreign ſtrands new ſubjects come,
New arts accede a thouſand ways,
For here the wretched finds a home,
And all her portals Charity diſplays.
From each proud maſter's hard command,
From tyrant Zeal's oppreſſive hand
What eager exiles fly!
"Give us, they cry, 'tis Nature's cauſe,
O give us liberty and laws,
Beneath a harſher ſky,"
Thus George and Britain bleſs mankind.
—— Away, ye barks; the favouring wind

Springs from the Eaſt: ye pow'rs, divide
The vaſt Atlantic's heaving tide.
Britannia, from each rocky height,
Purſues you with applauding hands;
Afar, impatient for the freight,
See, the whole weſtern world expecting ſtands!
Already Fancy paints each plain,
The deſarts nod with golden grain,
The wond'ring vales look gay:
The woodman's ſtroke the foreſts feel,
The lakes admit the merchant's keel——
Away, ye barks, away!

Tranſlation of a Greek *Epigram, on a* Grecian *Beauty.*

THY eyes declare th' imperial wife of Jove,
Thy breaſts diſcloſe the Cyprian queen of love;
Minerva's fingers thy fair hand diſplays,
And Thetis' limbs each graceful ſtep betrays.
Bleſt man! whoſe eye on thy bright form has hung;
Thrice bleſt! who hears the muſic of thy tongue.
As monarchs happy! who thy lips has preſt;
But who embraces, as the gods is bleſt.

An Original Poem, from the Appendix newly publiſhed to Dr. SWIFT'S *Works.*

Letter to the Dean, when in England, *in* 1726.

YOU will excuſe me, I ſuppoſe,
For ſending rhyme inſtead of proſe,
Becauſe hot weather makes me lazy:
To write in metre is more eaſy.
While you are trudging to the town,
I'm ſtrolling Dublin up and down;
While you converſe with lords and dukes,
I have their betters here, my books;
Fix'd in an elbow chair, at eaſe,
I chuſe companions as I pleaſe.
I'd rather have one ſingle ſhelf,
Than all my friends, except yourſelf;
For, after all that can be ſaid,
Our beſt acquaintance are the dead.
While you're in raptures with Fauſtina,
I'm charm'd at home with our Sheelina

While

While you are ſtarving there in ſtate,
I'm cramming here with butcher's meat.
You ſay, when with thoſe lords you dine,
They treat you with the beſt of wine,
Burgundy, Cyprus, and Tokay;
Why ſo can we, as well as they.
No reaſon then, my dear good Dean,
But you ſhould travel home again.
What though you mayn't in Ireland hope
To find ſuch folks as Gay and Pope;
If you with rhymers here would ſhare
But half the wit that you can ſpare,
I'd lay twelve eggs, that in twelve days,
You'd make a doz'n of Popes and Gays.
Our weather is good, our ſky is clear,
We've ev'ry joy, if you were here;
So lofty, and ſo bright a ſky,
Was never ſeen by Ireland's eye!
I think it fit to let you know,
This week I ſhall to Quilca go;
To ſee M'Fayden's horny brothers,
Firſt ſuck, and after bull their mothers.
To ſee, alas! my wither'd trees!
To ſee, what all the country ſees!
My ſtunted quicks, my famiſh'd beeves;
My ſervants ſuch a pack of thieves;
My ſhatter'd firs, my blaſted oaks;
My houſe in common to all folks:
No cabbage for a ſingle ſnail;
My turnips, carrots, parſnips fail;
My no green peas, my few green ſprouts;
My mother always in the pouts:
My horſes rid, or gone aſtray;
My fiſh all ſtol'n, or run away;
My mutton lean, my pullets old,
My poultry ſtarv'd, the corn all ſold.
A man, come now from Quilca, ſays,
They've ſtol'n the locks from all your keys;
But what muſt fret and vex me more,
He ſays, they ſtole the keys before.
They've ſtol'n the knives from all the forks,
And half the cows from half the ſturks;
Nay more, the fellow ſwears and vows,
They've ſtol'n the ſturks from half the cows.
With many more accounts of woe,
Yet, though the Devil be there, I'll go;
'Twixt you and me, the reaſon's clear,
Becauſe I've more vexation here.

An ODE *to* SPRING.

Supposed to have been written by the celebrated Vanessa, *in consequence of her passion for Dean* Swift.

HAIL, blushing goddess, beauteous spring,
Who, in thy jocund train, dost bring
Loves and graces, smiling hours,
Balmy breezes, fragrant flowers;
Come, with tints of roseate hue,
Nature's faded charms renew.
Yet why should I thy presence hail?
To me no more the breathing gale
Comes fraught with sweets, no more the rose
With such transcendent beauty blows,
As when Cadenus blest the scene,
And shar'd with me these joys serene,
When, unperceiv'd, the lambent fire
Of friendship kindled new desire;
Still list'ning to his tuneful tongue,
The truths, which angels might have sung,
Divine impress their gentle sway,
And sweetly stole my soul away.
My guide, instructor, lover, friend,
(Dear names) in one idea blend;
Oh! still conjoin'd, your incense rise,
And waft sweet odours to the skies.

An ODE *to* WISDOM. *By the same.*

OH! Pallas! I invoke thy aid!
Vouchsafe to hear a wretched maid,
By tender love depress;
'Tis just that thou should'st heal the smart,
Inflicted by thy subtle art,
And calm my troubled breast.

No random shot from Cupid's bow,
But by thy guidance, soft and slow,
It sunk within my heart;
Thus Love being arm'd with Wisdom's force,
In vain I try to stop its course,
In vain repel the dart.

O Goddess, break the fatal league,
Let Love, with Folly and Intrigue,

More

More fit aſſociates find;
And thou alone, within my breaſt
O! deign to ſoothe my griefs to reſt,
And heal my tortur'd mind.

A Reflection on the Death of the Marquis of Taviſtock.

HOW ſleep the brave, who ſink to reſt,
With all their country's wiſhes bleſt!
When ſpring, with dewy fingers cold,
Returns to deck their hallow'd mold,
She there ſhall dreſs a ſweeter ſod,
Than fancy's feet have ever trod.

By fairy hands their knell is rung:
By forms unſeen their dirge is ſung:
There honour comes a pilgrim grey,
To bleſs the turf that wraps their clay;
And freedom ſhall awhile repair,
To dwell a weeping hermit there.

The ROOKERY.

OH thou who dwell'ſt upon the bough,
Whoſe tree does wave its verdant brow,
And ſpreading ſhades the diſtant brook,
Accept theſe lines, dear ſiſter Rook!
And when thou'ſt read my mournful lay,
Extend thy wing and fly away,
Leſt pinion-maim'd by fiery ſhot,
Thou ſhould'ſt like me bewail thy lot;
Leſt in thy rook'ry be renew'd,
The tragic ſcene which here I view'd.
The day declin'd, the evening breeze
Gently rock'd the ſilent trees,
While ſpreading o'er my peopled neſt,
I huſh'd my callow young to reſt:
When ſuddenly an hoſtile ſound,
Exploſion dire! was heard around:
And level'd by the hand of Fate,
The angry bullets pierc'd my mate;
I ſaw him fall from ſpray to ſpray,
Till on the diſtant ground he lay:
With tortur'd wing he beat the plain,
And never caw'd to me again.

Many a neighbour, many a friend,
Deform'd with wounds, invok'd their end:
All ſcreaming, omen'd notes of woe,
'Gainſt man our unrelenting foe:
Theſe eyes beheld my pretty brood,
Flutt'ring in their guiltleſs blood;
While trembling on the ſhatter'd tree,
At length the gun invaded me;
But wayward Fate, ſeverely kind,
Refus'd the death, I wiſh'd to find:
Oh! farewell pleaſure; peace, farewell,
And with the gory raven dwell.
Was it for this I ſhun'd retreat,
And fix'd near man my ſocial ſeat!
For this deſtroy'd the inſect train,
That eat unſeen the infant grain!
For this, with many an honeſt note,
Iſſuing from my artleſs throat,
I chear'd my lady, liſt'ning near,
Working in her elbow chair!

EPITAPH.

"SWEETS to the ſweet," farewell! nor, longer mourn
A luckleſs huſband from your boſom torn:
No longer blame a father's treach'rous heart;
Blameleſs yourſelf, and innocent of art—
Fav'rite of Heav'n! in early life remov'd!
With angels live, and love, and be belov'd!
With angels feel what fate deny'd you here!
Bliſs; endleſs, as the friend and huſband's tear;
In all your virtues may the world agree!
Your failings—buried in the grave, and me.

PROLOGUE *to the* ENGLISH MERCHANT.

Spoken by Mr. KING.

EACH year how many Engliſh viſit France,
To learn the language, and to learn to dance!
'Twixt Dover cliffs and Calais, in July,
Obſerve how thick the birds of paſſage fly!
Fair-weather fops in ſwarms, freſh-water ſailors,
Cooks, mantua-makers, milliners and taylors.
Our bard too made a trip; and ſland'rers ſay,
Brought home, among ſome more run goods, a play;

Here!

Here! on this quay, prepar'd t'unload his cargo,
If on the freight you lay not an embargo.
" What, am I branded for a ſmuggler?" cries
Our little Bayes, with anger in his eyes.
" No, Engliſh poets, Engliſh merchants made,
" To the whole world of letters fairly trade:
" With the rich ſtores of antient Rome and Greece,
" *Imported duty free*, may fill their piece:
" Or, like Columbus, croſs th' Atlantic ocean,
" And ſet Peru and Mexico in motion;
" Turn Cherokees and Catabaws to ſhape;
" Or ſail for *wit and humour* to the Cape."
Is there a *weaver* here from Spital Fields?
To his award our author fairly yeilds.
The *pattern*, he allows, is not quite new,
And he imports the *raw materials too*.
Come whence they will, from Lyons, Genoa, Rome,
'Tis Engliſh ſilks when wrought in Engliſh loom.
Silks! he recants; and owns, with lowly mind,
His manufacture is a coarſer kind.
Be it drab, drugget, flannel, doyly, frieze,
Rug or whatever *winter-wear* you pleaſe,
So it have leave to rank in any claſs,
Pronounce it *Engliſh ſtuff*, and let it paſs!

To Sir Godfrey Kneller, *by the late Dr.* Geakie.

(A correct Copy.)

WHILE meaner artiſts labour hard to trace
The outward form, and features of a face,
Your magic pencil, Kneller, takes the ſoul,
And when you paint the man, you paint him whole.

On the CIRCUS *at* BATH.

By a Perſon of Quality.

YOUR half-round Circus by mere chance was right,
Your rounded Circus is a bee-hive quite;
All grace is vaniſh'd, all proportion loſt,
Space has confin'd you, and good fortune croſt;
Plac'd on a hill, to a fine proſpect bare,
At three ſharp crannies enters all your air:
Henceforth build creſcents, blameleſsly be dull,
But never build again *a moon at full*.

ODE *for his* MAJESTY'S *Birth-Day June* 4, 1767.

FRIEND to the poor!—for ſure, O king,
That godlike attribute is thine—
Friend to the poor; to thee we ſing,
To thee our annual offerings bring,
And bend at mercy's ſhrine.
In vain had nature deign'd to ſmile
Propitious on her fav'rite iſle
Emerging from the main:
In vain the genial ſource of day
Selected each indulgent ray
For Britain's fertile plain:
In vain yon bright ſurrounding ſkies
Bade all their clouds in volumes riſe,
Their foſt'ring dews diſtill'd:
In vain the wide and teeming earth
Gave all her buried treaſures birth.
And crown'd the laughing field:
For lo! ſome fiend, in evil hour,
Aſſuming famine's horrid mien,
Diffus'd her petrifying power
O'er thoughtleſs plenty's feſtive bower,
And blaſted every green.
Strong panic terrors ſhook the land:
Th' obdurate breaſt, the griping hand
Were almoſt taught to ſpare;
For loud miſrule, the ſcourge of crimes,
Mix'd with the madneſs of the times,
And rous'd a ruſtic war.
Whilſt real want, with ſigh ſincere,
At home, in ſilence, dropp'd the tear,
Or rais'd th' imploring eye,
Foul riot's ſons in torrents came,
And dar'd uſurp thy awful name,
Thrice ſacred miſery!
Then GEORGE aroſe. His feeling heart
Inſpir'd the nation's better part
With virtues like its own;
His power controul'd the inſatiate train
Whoſe avarice graſp'd at private gain
Regardleſs of a people's groan.
Like ſnows beneath th' all chearing ray
The rebel crowds diſſolv'd away:
And juſtice, tho' the ſword ſhe drew,
Glanc'd lightly o'er th' offending crew,

And

And ſcarce ſelected, to avenge her woes,
A ſingle victim from a hoſt of foes.
Yes, mercy triumph'd; mercy ſhone confeſt,
In her own nobleſt ſphere, a monarch's breaſt.
Forcibly mild did mercy ſhine
Like the ſweet month in which we pay
Our annual vows at mercy's ſhrine,
And hail our monarch's natal day.

On Mr. GARRICK'S *Picture by a Buſt of* Shakeſpeare. *By Dr.* H—rr—gt—n *of* Bath.

THE ſoul's chief virtues are in ſymbols ſhewn,
By wiſdom's bird is ſage Minerva known;
Idalian turtles ſpeak love's gentle fire,
The muſe is mark'd by Phœbus' golden lyre.

Art may expreſs yon venerable buſt,
And form each feature to reſemblance juſt;
But *Nature* pleas'd—with choiceſt tints deſign'd,
Thee! happy ſymbol of her Shakeſpeare's mind.

The LOVER *and the* FRIEND.

Taken from the Bagatelles.

I.

ENDU'D with all that could adorn,
Or bleſs, the firſt and faireſt born!
A Soul! that looks ſuperior down,
Let giddy fortune ſmile or frown;
With age's wiſdom, not her years,
Stella, all excellence appears;
Then, who can blame me, if I blend
The name of Lover with the Friend?

II.

Like Noah's dove, my buſy breaſt
Has rov'd to find a place of reſt!
Some faithful boſom, to repoſe,
And huſh, the family of woes.
Then, do I dream? or, have I found
The fair and hoſpitable ground?
Ah! quit your ſex's rules, and lend
A Lover's wiſhes to the Friend.

III.

Abſence I try'd,—but try'd in vain!
It heals not, but upbraids my pain;

For

For thee! I'd bear the reaper's toil;
For thee! conſume the midnight oil;
Then, to your judgment, wou'd I owe
All that I read, and write, and know;
Can thoſe who wiſh, like me, pretend
To part the Lover and the Friend!

IV.

Come, then! and let us dare to prove
Diſintereſted ſweets of love;
For, gen'rous love no dwelling finds,
In poor and mercenary minds:
Laugh at life's idle flutt'ring things;
Look down with pity upon kings;
Careleſs! who like, or diſcommend,
Bleſt in the Lover and the Friend!

V.

Oh! come, and we'll together haſte,
O'er life's uncomfortable waſte:
Bear the ſharp thorn, to find the roſe,
And ſmile at tranſitory woes;
Keep the bright goal of hope in view,
Nor, look behind, as others do;
'Till death, and only death, ſhall end
At once the Lover and the Friend.

PROLOGUE *to* THE TAYLORS.

Spoken by SAMUEL FOOTE, *Eſq*;

And ſuppoſed to be written by D—— G——, *Eſq*;

THIS night we add ſome heroes to our ſtore,
Who never were, as heroes, ſeen before;
No bluſtering Romans, Trojans, Greeks, ſhall rage,
No knights, arm'd cap a-pee, ſhall croud our ſtage;
Nor ſhall our Henrys, Edwards, take the field,
Oppoſing ſword to ſword, and ſhield to ſhield;
With other inſtruments our troop appears;
Needles to thimbles ſhall, and ſheers to ſheers;
With parchment gorgets, and in buckram arm'd,
Cold-blooded taylors are to heroes warm'd;
And, ſlip-ſhod, ſlide to war.—No lyons glare,
No eye-balls flaſhing fire, ſhall make you ſtare:
Each outſide ſhall belye the ſtuff within;
A Roman ſpirit in each taylor's ſkin:—
A taylor-legg'd Pompey, Caſſius, ſhall you ſee,
And the ninth-part of Brutus ſtrut in me!

What

What tho' no ſwords we draw, no daggers ſhake,
Yet can our warriors *a quietus make*
With a bare bodkin.—Now be dumb, ye railers,
And never but in honour call out Taylors!
But are theſe heroes tragic? you will cry.
Oh, very tragic! and I'll tell you why——
Should female artiſts with the male combine,
And *mantua-makers* with the *taylors* join;
Should all, too proud to work, their trades give o'er,
Nor to be ſooth'd again by *Six-pence* more,
What horrors would enſue! Firſt you, ye beaux,
At once loſe all exiſtence with your cloaths!
And you, ye fair, where wou'd be your defence?
This is no golden age of innocence!
Should drunken bacchanals the graces meet,
And no police to guard the naked ſtreet:
Beauty is weak, and paſſion bold and ſtrong,
Oh then—But modeſty reſtrains my tongue.
May this night's bard a ſkilful taylor be
And like a well-made coat his tragedy.
Tho' *cloſe*, yet *eaſy*, *decent* but not *dull*,
Short but not *ſcanty*, without *buckram*, FULL.

The ACCEPTABLE SACRIFICE.

A Fragment of MENANDER:

Tranſlated by FRANCIS FAWKES, M. A.

WHOE'ER approaches to the Lord of all,
And with his offerings deſolates the ſtall;
Who brings a hundred bulls with garlands dreſt,
The purple mantle, or the golden veſt;
Or ivory figures richly wrought around,
Or curious images with emeralds crown'd;
And hopes with theſe GOD's favour to obtain,
His thoughts are fooliſh, and his hopes are vain.
He, only he, may truſt his pray'r will riſe,
And Heav'n accept his grateful ſacrifice,
Who leads, beneficent, a virtuous life;
Who wrongs no virgin, who corrupts no wife;
No robber he, no murd'rer of mankind,
No miſer, ſervant to the ſordid mind.
Dare to be juſt, my Pamphilus, diſdain
The ſmalleſt trifle for the greateſt gain:
For God is nigh thee, and his purer ſight
In acts of goodneſs only takes delight:

He feeds the labourer for his honeſt toil,
And heaps his ſubſtance as he turns the ſoil.
To him then humbly pay the rites divine,
And not in garments, but in goodneſs ſhine.
Guiltleſs of conſcience thou may'ſt ſafely ſleep
Tho' thunders bellow through the boundleſs deep.

A Tranſlation of a little Sonnet wrote by PLATO, *in his younger time of life, and preſerved by* DIOGENES LAERTIUS.

TAKE the gift that I beſtow,
Catch this apple that I throw;
Part of the heap, my faireſt ſee,
The heap I've treaſur'd up for thee.

Take it, and my offer'd love
If, beſide, thou doſt approve,
In kind return to my bleſt arms
Yield up the treaſure of thy charms.

But if (how that But I hate!
Be it not confirm'd by fate!)
Thou favour'ſt not my am'rous ſuit,
Still take my preſent of the fruit.

Think when thou behold'ſt its bloom,
What to-morrow 'twill become:
Think, that, if eaten not to-day,
To teeth of Time 'twill fall a prey.

EPITAPH *on* CLAUDIUS PHILLIPS.

By Dr. JOHNSON.

PHILLIPS! whoſe touch harmonious could remove
The pangs of guilty power or hapleſs love,
Reſt here: oppreſs'd by poverty no more,
Here find that calm thou gav'ſt ſo oft before:
Sleep undiſturb'd within this humble ſhrine,
Till angels wake thee with a note like thine.

Verſes

Verſes inſcribed on a ſmall Cottage, in ruſtic Taſte, intended as a Place of Retirement, built by —— Powis, *Eſq; in a Grove by the River* Severn.

STAY, paſſenger, and tho' within,
Nor gold, nor glittering gems are ſeen,
To ſtrike thy dazzled eye,
Yet enter, and thy raviſh'd mind
Beneath this humble roof ſhall find
What gold will never buy.

Within this ſolitary cell,
Calm thought and ſweet contentment dwell,
Parents of bliſs ſincere:
Peace ſpreads around her balmy wings,
And, baniſh'd from the courts of kings,
Has fix'd her manſion here.

An Occaſional Prologue, ſpoken by Mr. Powell, *at the Opening of the Theatre Royal in* Covent-Garden, *on* Monday *the* 14*th of* Sept.

AS when the merchant, to increaſe his ſtore,
For dubious ſeas advent'rous quits the ſhore,
Still anxious for his freight, he trembling ſees
Rocks in each buoy, and tempeſts in each breeze;
The curling wave to mountains billows ſwells,
And every cloud a fancied ſtorm foretells:
Thus raſhly launch'd on this theatric main,
Our *all* on board, each phantom gives us pain;
The catcall's note ſeems thunder in our ears,
And every hiſs a hurricane appears;
In *Journal* ſquibs we lightning's blaſt eſpy,
And meteors blaze in every critic's eye.
Spite of theſe terrors, ſtill ſome hopes we view,
Hopes ne'er can fail us—ſince they're plac'd in you.
Your breath the gale, our voyage is ſecure,
And ſafe the venture which your ſmiles inſure:
Tho' weak his ſkill, th' advent'rer muſt ſucceed,
Where candour takes the *endeavour* for the *deed*.
For Brentford's ſtate two kings could once ſuffice,
In ours, behold! *four* kings of Brentford riſe;
All ſmelling to one noſegay's odorous ſavour,
The balmy noſegay of the—public favour.
From hence alone our royal funds we draw,
Your pleaſure our ſupport, your will our law.
While ſuch our government, we hope you'll own us,
But, ſhould we ever tyrants prove—dethrone us.

like

Like brother monarchs, who, to coax the nation,
Begin their reigns with ſome fair proclamation;
We too ſhould talk at leaſt—of Reformation;
Declare that during our imperial ſway,
No bard ſhall mourn his long-neglected play;
But then the play muſt have ſome wit, ſome ſpirit,
And we allow'd ſole umpires of its merit.
For thoſe deep ſages of the judging pit,
Whoſe taſte is too refin'd for modern wit,
From Rome's great theatre we'll cull the piece,
And plant on Britain's ſtage the flowers of Greece.
If ſome there are our Britiſh bards can pleaſe,
Who taſte the ancient wit of ancient days,
Be our's to ſave from time's devouring womb
Their works, and ſnatch their laurels from the tomb.
For you, ye fair, who ſprightlier ſcenes may chooſe,
Where muſic decks in all her airs the muſe,
Gay opera ſhall all its charms diſpenſe,
Yet boaſt no tuneful triumph over ſenſe:
The nobler bard ſhall ſtill aſſert his right,
Nor Handel rob a Shakeſpeare of his night.
To greet their *mortal* brethren of *our* ſkies,
Here all the gods of pantomime ſhall riſe:
Yet 'midſt the pomp and magic of machines,
Some plot may mark the *meaning* of our ſcenes:
Scenes which were held, in good king Rich's days,
By ſages, no bad epilogues to plays.
If terms like theſe your ſuffrage can engage,
To fix our mimic empire of the ſtage;
Confirm our title, in your fair opinions,
And croud each night to people our dominions.

On the Right Hon. the Earl of CHESTERFIELD'S *Recovery from a late Indiſpoſition.*

By MICHAEL CLANCY, *M. D.*

Durrow in *Ireland, Sept.* 29.

Je diſois a la nuit ſombre;
Tu vas maintenant dans ton ombre
Le cacher pour toujours:
Je rediſois a l' Aurore,
La mantinée que tu vas eclore
Ce ſera le dernier de ſes jours.

IN noon-day heat, a pilgrim ſpread
His limbs to warmth, and chaf'd his head;

Enjoy'd the ſun, whoſe pow'rful ray
Enliven'd once Promethean clay:
Sudden he finds a ſhade of night
Invade its ſtrong meridian light:
Soon feels a dreary damp, and ſees
The gloom advancing by degrees;
Till all its lucid orb was ſeiz'd
With darkneſs, thick'ning as he gaz'd:
Convulſive pangs his ſoul affright
With terrors of eternal night:
No hope that time may light reſtore;
And noon-day was to be no more.
  Thus when, of late, pale ſickneſs ſpread
A diſmal miſt round Stanhope's head;
That head, whoſe prudence ſtates rever'd,
And ev'ry foe to virtue fear'd;
A threat'ning cloud hung o'er thoſe eyes
Whoſe vigour pierc'd thro' falſe diſguiſe;
That tender heart began to grieve
Whoſe chiefeſt joy was to relieve;
And faintly thrill'd that vital flood
Which flow'd for univerſal good.
  Swift *Fame* the diſmal tidings bore,
And Albion moan'd from ſhore to ſhore;
Her genius droop'd. In mournful lays
Ierne's ſons attempt his praiſe;
O beſt of men! whoſe conduct ſage
Appeas'd rebellion's horrid rage;
Full right he held the guiding helm;
Our lives he ſav'd, who ſav'd the realm.
Propitious Heav'n, your aid beſtow
On him whoſe heart would pity ſhow.
  Eclipſes are the ſun's diſeaſe,
When the dark moon obſtructs his rays:
As ſhe goes off, he ſhines again,
And re-aſſumes his ſplendid reign.
  That dreadful cloud is blown away.
Which darken'd Stanhope's lovely day
On ev'ry face a chearful ſmile
Shews joy renew'd thro' Britain's Iſle:
To mirth Ierne's harp reſounds;
To mirth each vocal hill rebounds.
Her rural pipes his ſafety greet,
In ſprightly airs, and numbers ſweet.
Swift fly loud notes from ſilver ſtrings,
And ev'ry muſe in concert ſings.

PROLOGUE *to* THE OXONIAN in TOWN;

Spoken by Mr. WOODWARD,

In the character of a gentleman commoner, dreſſed in his academical habit.

FRESH from the ſchools, behold an *Oxford* ſmart,
No dupe to ſcience, no dull ſlave of art;
As to our dreſs, faith ladies, to ſay truth
It is a little aukward, and uncouth;
No ſword, cockade, to lure you to our arms—
But then this airy taſſel has its charms.
What mortal *Oxford* laundreſs can withſtand
This, and the graces of a well-ſtarch'd band?
In this array, our ſpark, with winning air,
Boldly accoſts the froth-compelling fair;
Faſt by the tub, with folded arms he ſtands,
And ſees his ſurplice whiten in her hands;
And as ſhe dives into the ſoapy floods,
Wiſhes almoſt—himſelf were in the ſuds.
Sometimes the car he drives impetuous on,
Cut, laſh, and ſlaſh, a very Phaeton.
Swift as the fiery courſers of the ſun,
Up hill and down, his raw-bon'd hackneys run,
Leaving, with heat half dead, and duſt half blind,
Turnpikes and bawling hoſts unpaid behind.
You think perhaps we read—perhaps we may
—The news, a pamphlet, or the laſt new play;
But for the ſcribblers of th' *Auguſtan* age,
Horace, and ſuch queer mortals—not a page;
His brilliant ſterling wit we juſtly hold
More brilliant far, transform'd to ſterling gold.
Though *Euclid* we digeſt without much pain,
And ſolve his problems into briſk champaign.
Fir'd with this juice—why let the proctor come,
"Young men, 'tis late—'tis time you were at home."
Zounds! are you here, we cry, with your dull rules,
Like *Banquo*'s ghoſt, *to puſh us from our ſtools.*
Such are the ſtudies ſmarts purſue at college:
Oh! we are great proficients in ſuch knowledge.
But now, no more from claſſic fields to glean,
The muſe to *Covent-Garden* ſhifts the ſcene;
There ſhall I enter next, *ſans* cap and gown,
And play my part on this great ſtage *the Town.*

[*Bowing, and going, returns.*]

Soft

Soft ye, a word or two before I go;
Our piece is call'd a *Comedy, you know.*
A two-act Comedy! though *Rome* enacts,
That every comedy be juſt five acts.
Hence parent dullneſs the vain title begs,
For ſqualling, dancing monſters on five legs.
The bantling of to-night, if rear'd by you,
Shall run, like men and women, upon *Two.*

EPILOGUE.

Spoken by Mrs. MATTOCKS.

[*Enter as Lucy, with a pack of cards.*]

HERE they are ladies!—Should theſe charming packs
Be doubly loaded with a filthy tax?
"My card to your's, my lord, a thouſand pound;"
Oh! charming ſport!—Oh! might I deal 'em round?
Yet will I uſe 'em, and, Oh! deign to liſt,
Tho' 'tis no lecture on the game of whiſt.
The future doom of gameſters to explore
I, like the Sibyl's leaves, the cards turn o'er;
Nor think, ye fair, theſe books of fate deceive,
Theſe only books 'tis modiſh to believe.
Firſt with long ſtaff, ſhort coat, a ſwagg'ring ſpark,
Some gambler, 'prentice, or attorney's clerk,
His fortune aſks—What card deſcribes theſe cubs?
Oh! here I have him in the *knave of clubs.*
By clear conſtruction of theſe pips I read,
Thus he will play his cards, and thus ſucceed;
At hazard, faro, brag, he joins the groupe,
And ends a knave, as he commenc'd a dupe.
And thence, his broken fortunes to repair,
At Hounſlow firſt, then Tyburn, takes the air.
Here, in the *king of diamonds*, pictur'd ſtands
An heir, juſt warm in his dead father's lands.
Now hey for cards and dice, his elbows ſhake;
The ſympathizing trees and acres quake!
His cooks lament, dogs howl, and grooms regret
Their fate depending on each deſperate bett.
Now dup'd, the bullet whizzes thro' his head,
And ſhatters duſt to duſt, by lead to lead.
Lo! next to my prophetic eye there ſtarts
A beauteous gameſter, in the *queen of hearts!*
The cards are dealt, the fatal pool is loſt,
And all her golden hopes for ever croſt.

Yet ſtill this card-devoted fair I view,
Whate'er her luck, to *Honour* ever true.
So tender *there*, if debts crowd faſt upon her,
She'll pawn her *Virtue*—to preſerve her *Honour*.
Thrice happy were my art, could I foretell,
Cards would be ſoon abjur'd by each fond belle:
Yet I pronounce, who cheriſh ſtill this vice,
And the pale vigils keep of cards and dice,
'Twill in their charms ſtrange havock make, ye fair!
Which *rouge* in vain ſhall labour to repair:
Beauties ſhall grow mere hags; toaſts wither'd jades;
Frightful, and ugly, as the *Queen of Spades*.

PROLOGUE

To a PEEP BEHIND THE CURTAIN;

Or, THE NEW REHEARSAL.

BOLD is the man, and compos mentis ſcarce——
Who, in theſe nicer times, dares write a farce;
A vulgar, long-forgotten taſte renew;
All now are comedies, five acts, or two.
Authors have ever in a canting ſtrain,
Begg'd mercy for the bantlings of their brain:
That you, kind nurſe, would fondle't on your lap,
And rear it with applauſe, that beſt of pap——
Thus babes have in their cradles 'ſcap'd a blow,
Tho' lame and rickety from top to toe:
Our bard, with prologue-outworks has not fenc'd him,
For all that I ſhall ſay, will make againſt him.
Imprimis, this his piece—a Farce we call it——
Ergo 'tis low—and ten to one you maul it!
Wou'd you, becauſe 'tis low, no quarter give?
Blackguards as well as gentlemen, ſhou'd live;
'Tis downright *Engliſh* too—Nothing from *France*,
Except ſome beaſts, which treat you with a dance.
With a burletta too we ſhall preſent you——
And, not *Italian*—that will diſcontent you.
Nay, what is worſe—you'll ſee it, and muſt know it——
I *Thomas King*, of *King-ſtreet*, am the poet:
The murder's out——the murderer, detected,
May in one night, be try'd, condemn'd, diſſected.
'Tis ſaid, for ſcandal's tongue will never ceaſe;
That miſchief's meant againſt our little piece:
Let me look round, I'll tell you how the caſe is—
There's not one frown a ſingle brow diſgraces;
I never ſaw a ſweeter ſet of faces!

Suppoſ

Suppoſe *Old Nick*, before you righteous folk,
Produce a farce, brim-full of mirth and joke;
Tho' he, at other times, would fire your blood;
You'd clap his piece, and ſwear, 'twas *deviliſh* good!
Malice propenſe! 'tis falſe! it cannot be——
Light is my heart, from apprehenſions free——
If you would ſave *Old Nick*, you'll never damn poor me.

EPILOGUE.

ALL fable is figure—I your bard will maintain it,
And leaſt you don't know it, 'tis fit I explain it:
The *Lyre* of our *Orpheus*, means your approbation;
Which frees the poor poet from care and vexation:
Shou'd want make his miſtreſs too keen to diſpute,
Your ſmiles fill his pockets——and Madam is mute:
Shou'd his wife, that's himſelf, for they two are but one;
Be in hell, that's in debt, and the money all gone:
Your favour brings comfort, at once cures the evil,
For 'ſcaping bumbailiffs, is 'ſcaping the devil.
Nay *Cerberus Critics* their fury will drop,
For ſuch barking monſters, your ſmiles are a ſop:
But how to explain what you moſt will require,
That *Cows*, *Sheep*, and *Calves*, ſhou'd dance after the lyre,
Without your kind favour, how ſcanty each meal!
But with it comes dancing, *Beef*, *Mutton*, and *Veal*.
For ſing it, or ſay it, this truth we all ſee,
Your applauſe will be ever *the true Beaume de Vie*.

PROLOGUE *to the New Comedy of The* WIDOW'D WIFE.

Spoken by Mr. HOLLAND.

TO gain the public ear, the man of rhimes
Should always ſpeak the language of the times;
And little elſe hath been of late in hearing,
Than terms and phraſes of electioneering.
Our author therefore ſends me to aſſure ye,
Worthy, and free electors of *Old Drury*,
How happy he ſhould prove, if it content you,
That he be one of thoſe who repreſent you;
The *ſtate poetic*, laws, and legiſlature,
Like the *political*, in form and nature;
Phœbus, the nine, and bards of reputation,
King, peerage, commons, of the ſcribbling nation.

Now, from Parnaſſus' throne, the prince of wit,
It ſeems, hath iſſued out his royal writ
For a new member—no offence to give
To a late worthy repreſentative;
Who, ris'n to favour, hath from us retreated,
And 'midſt the lords of t'other houſe is ſeated—
His ſervice loſt, preſuming you may need him,
The preſent candidate would fain ſucceed him.
Not that he vainly boaſts, on this occaſion,
He met encouragement from your perſuaſion;
Or that both friends, who love, and foes, who hate him,
Have been unanimous to nominate him.
'Tis for this loyal borough, his affection,
And patriot zeal, that make him riſk th' election:
To his conſtituents ſubject to controul,
With whoſe good leave he means to ſtand the poll;
Truſting ſecure to their impartial choice,
The town uncanvaſs'd for a ſingle voice:
Nay, brib'd no brother burgeſs bard of note,
Nor by corruption gain'd one critic's vote.
Too proud to beg, too modeſt to demand,
By merit only would he fall or ſtand:
Nor enmity nor friendſhip interfering,
He only aſks a fair and candid hearing.
If, after that, you ſhould with ſcorn reject him,
Or make one honeſt ſcruple to elect him,
He'll lay his unadviſed ſcheme aſide,
And frankly own himſelf not qualified.

EPILOGUE, *ſpoken by Mrs.* CLIVE.

WHATEVER diſcord and diſorder reign,
Among the learned ſons of Warwick-lane,
Should they throw ſquibs made up of latin ſcraps,
And come to pulling wigs, as women caps,
The ſick eſcape—death will not lay about him,
He has more honour, than to work without 'em.
Should you *(to the pit)* whoſe ſkill and wiſdom we acknowledge,
The *fellows* of this old *dramatic college*,
(No matter what the cauſe of altercation)
Croud hither ev'ry night for diſputation;
The bard, half dead before, enjoys the ſport,
Gets ſtrength each day, and is the better for't.
Warm'd with this ſubject, let your fancies play,
And me, by licence, make a *doctor*, pray.

Sup-

Suppoſe this gown a ſuit of velvet, plain,
With a gold button, and this fan—a cane;
My *cap* becomes a *tye*, moſt wiſely big;
Oh! no—I had forgot—a ſmart *bag* wig:
No *phyſic buſhes* now are ſeen in town;
For all the ſigns, you know, are taken down.
Call me *licentiate—fellow*—what you will—
I'll feel your pulſes all, and prove my ſkill.
The pulſes of the boxes firſt I'll feel,
And by their beating will their thoughts reveal.
(ſhe acts the doctor feeling a pulſe)
Languid, and low—Wildman's old-faſhion'd ſtory
Was much too *nervous*, to be ſet before ye:
For twelve long years a tender wife forſaking,
Worn out with wand'ring, and, what's worſe, with raking,
And then return—he was not worth the taking.
As for the pulſes of my friends above,
They thump for joy—when ſpouſes kiſs and love.
Bleſs their young hearts—what means this palpitation?
Each miſs's blood is now in agitation!
Each quick pulſation for Narciſſa beats;
When ſhe went off—they ſcarce could keep their ſeats.
When Lombard talk'd of bribes—how lik'd you that?
(to the pit.)
Some pulſes in this houſe went—pat, pat, pat.
If this our night's preſcription you have taken,
Without wry faces, or your heads much ſhaken;
If you perceive ſome character, and wit,
With plot and humour—*quantum ſufficit*;
Mixt up with *ſal volatile* of ſatire:
Let it—*quotidie nocte repetatur*;
'Tis by *our noſtrums* you are kept alive;
Purſue the regimen of Doctor Clive.

A PASTORAL. *In the modern Style.*

PASTORA *and* GALATEA.

BEneath the umbrageous ſhadow of a ſhade,
Where glowing foliage on the ſurface play'd,
And golden roſes fann'd the ſilver breeze,
In many a maze light echoing through the trees,
Paſtora tun'd the ſweetly-panting ſtring,
And ruddy notes thus wak'd the flattering ſpring,
While from th' alternate margin of an oak,
A woodland Naiad thus meandring ſpoke.

PASTORA.

The reed diſports upon the ſounding thorn,
And Philomel ſalutes the noon-tide morn,
The buzzing bees, poetic from their hive,
In ſmooth alliteration ſeem alive:
But ah! my virgin ſwain is chaſter far
Than Cupid's painted ſhafts, or ſparrows are;
Sparrows, that perch, like Sapphos, on my lay,
Or hop in concert with the dancing day.

GALATEA.

What ſound was that, which dawn'd a bleating hue,
And bluſh'd a ſigh? Paſtora, was it you?
Your notes, ſweet maid, this proverb ſtill ſhall foil,
'The pot that's watch'd was never known to boil.'

PASTORA.

Ah, no! whate'er thou art, or ſigh, or word,
Or golden water fam'd, or talking bird;
Source of my joy, or genius of my notes,
Or Ocean's landſcape ſtampt with lyric boats,
Ah, no! far hence thy aromatic ſtrains
Recoil, and beautify our vaulted plains.

GALATEA.

Thy dazzling harmony affects me ſo,
In azure ſymmetry I ſigh—ah, no!
Ah, no! ah, no! the woods irradiate ſing,
Ah, no! ah, no! for joy the grottoes ring;
E'en Heraclitus' vocal tears would flow,
To hear thee murmur thy melodious No!
Thy voice, 'tis true, Paſtora, gilds the ſky,
But woods and grottoes flutter in my eye.

PASTORA.

When night pellucid warbles into day,
And morn ſonorous floats upon the May,
With well-blown bugle through the wilds of air
I roam accordant, while the bounding hare
In covert claps her wings, to ſee me paſs
Ethereal meadows of tranſparent graſs.

GALATEA.

Magnetic thunders now illume the air,
And fragrant muſic variegates the year.
Light trips the dolphin through cerulean woods,
And ſpotleſs tygers harmonize the floods;

Ev'n

Ev'n Thetis ſmooths her brow, and laughs to ſee
Kind nature weep, in ſymphony with me.

PASTORA.

This young conundrum let me firſt propoſe,
It puzzles half our dainty belles and beaux.
What makes my lays, in blue-ey'd order ſhine
So far ſuperior, when compar'd with thine?

GALATEA.

Expound me this, and I'll diſclaim the prize,
Whoſe luſtre bluſhes with Peruvian dyes.
When crowing foxes whiſtle in their dens,
Or radiant hornpipes dance to cocks and hens,
What makes ſly Reynard and his cackling mate,
That ſav'd the capitol, reſign to fate?

PASTORA.

But ſee, Aquarius fills his ample vaſe,
And Taurus warbles to Vitruvian laws:
So, crab-like Cancer all her ſpeed aſſumes,
And Virgo, ſtill a maid, elaſtic blooms.
My roſe-lipt ewes in myſtic wonder ſtand
To hear me ſing, and court my conſcious hand.
Adieu, my goats; for ne'er ſhall rural muſe
Your philoſophic beards to ſtroke refuſe.

An Ironical Eulogium on IGNORANCE. *By Dr.* CLANCY, *of* Durrow, *in* Ireland.

Quanto rectius eſt ſe plane nihil ſcire confiteri.

KNowledge, that woeful ſource of ſtrife,
The peſt and bane of human life,
Deriv'd from Adam's fatal tree,
To curſe his wretched progeny;
Has made all true enjoyments leſs
Than what our fellow-brutes poſſeſs;
Who by unerring inſtinct move,
And from its dictates never rove;
But always ſteadily purſue
What ſimple nature bids them do.
This true aſſertion muſt ſurpriſe,
And ſhock the learned and the wiſe,
Who look on all—with proud diſdain,
That want the ſtuff that loads their brain,

And keeps them ever by deluſion
In dark irregular confuſion.
The ſureſt calm that can allay
The ſtorms of life's tempeſtuous ſea,
Is found in undiſturb'd repoſe,
Whence every juſt contentment flows:
Thus in the thoughtleſs, careleſs mind,
The ſeat of real bliſs we find.
O *Ignorance!* thou darling child
Of nature, like thy parent mild;
Thou precious gift, beſtow'd at birth,
To form our happineſs on earth;
Involv'd in thee, we bid defiance
To all the rocks and crags of ſcience:
In thy ſafe port ſecure we ſleep,
While *Learning* ploughs the toilſome deep;
Thy influ'nce makes the blockhead ſcribble
Conundrums quaint, and far-fetch'd quibble;
Makes Anti-Chriſtian ——— preach,
And cow-boys Greek and Latin teach;
Phyſicians gravely mix a potion,
That cures all ills by ſtopping motion;
The foggy lawyers make defence
Againſt all rules of common ſenſe;
Dull magiſtrates on benches nod,
And vainly hold the uſeleſs rod:
Make ſtateſmen loll in ſplendor, brewing
Their maſter's and the nation's ruin.
From love, the choiceſt boon that Heav'n
Has by its kind indulgence giv'n,
Is ev'ry ſtore of ſweetneſs flown,
When ſecrets once are too well known:
Thus, all the joys of life's ſhort trance
Conſiſt in downright Ignorance.
Knowledge! withdraw thy hated rays;
We love obſcurity and eaſe:
Extend thy glimm'ring light no more,
But let us yawn, and ſleep and ſnore:
Since not e'en Berkley's viſions ſaw
Th' intrinſic parts that form a ſtraw;
Nor Newton, more than mortals wiſe,
Who fathom'd earth, and ſeas, and ſkies,
Cou'd ever truly underſtand
The eſſence of one grain of ſand.

The WINTER's WALK.

By SAMUEL JOHNSON, L. L. D.

BEHOLD, my fair, where'er we rove,
What dreary proſpects round us riſe:
The naked hill, the leafleſs grove,
The hoary ground, the frowning ſkies!

Nor only through the waſted plain,
Stern Winter, is thy force confeſs'd;
Still wider ſpreads thy horrid reign,
I feel thy pow'r uſurp my breaſt.

Enliv'ning hope and fond deſire,
Reſign the heart to ſpleen and care,
Scarce frighted love maintains her fire,
And rapture ſaddens to deſpair.

In groundleſs hope, and cauſeleſs fear,
Unhappy man! behold thy doom
Still changing with the changeful year,
The ſlave of ſunſhine and of gloom.

Tir'd with vain joys, and falſe alarms,
With mental and corporeal ſtrife,
Snatch me, my Stella, to thy arms,
And ſcreen me from the ills of life.

An Account of Books, for 1767.

THE Hiſtory of the Life of King Henry the Second, and of the age in which he lived, in five Books: to which is prefixed, a Hiſtory of the Revolutions of England from the Death of Edward the Confeſſor to the Birth of Henry the Second. By George Lord Lyttelton. [3 vols. 4to.]

AS there is, perhaps, no ſtudy ſo delightful as that of hiſtory, ſo there is no hiſtory ſo uſeful as that of our own country. The very early accounts of England, as of all other ancient nations, being founded on fable, the reading of any thing relating to thoſe dark ages may be conſidered merely as an amuſement. But from the time that the different kingdoms of the heptarchy were united under one government; that the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution began to be compleatly formed; and that many facts became properly aſcertained; every part of the hiſtory of England becomes an object of conſideration.

The noble author of the excellent work before us, has choſen one of the moſt critical, the moſt diſtinguſhed, and the moſt intereſting periods, for the ſubject of his hiſtory. To his age of Henry the Second he has prefixed a hiſtory of the revolutions which happened in England from the death of Edward the Confeſſor to the birth of that prince. And as the hiſtory of king Stephen is included in the firſt book of the age of Henry the Second, we have thereby a compleat hiſtory of England and of its continental connections, for that intereſting period of above an hundred years. In this period we ſee the conqueſt of one mighty nation by another; the union and incorporation of both nations; the manner how by ſlow degrees they were melted into one; and their united acts under ſome of the greateſt monarchs that ever lived. The noble writer traces out, with the greateſt accuracy, the degrees by which the Norman feudal ſyſtem was engrafted upon and interwoven with the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution; from whence, through various modifications, proceeds that excellent form which we enjoy at preſent.

This is a part of our hiſtory, which requires the greateſt labour, judgment, and knowledge, to inveſtigate; and which, though eſſentially requiſite to be known by every Engliſhman of conſideration in his country, is the moſt involved in obſcurity, the leaſt generally underſtood, and the part as to which modern writers differ moſt in opinion. For this, many cauſes may be aſſigned; moſt of our writers have been influenced by ſome or other of the parties into which we have been ſo frequently divided, and which are perhaps ſo neceſſary for the preſervation of a free ſtate. From hence it has proceeded, that too

many

many of our hiſtorians have adopted favourite ſyſtems, to which every thing that came in their way was obliged to ſubmit, which, as it has leſſened our character as hiſtorians, has equally prevented our acquiſition of the moſt uſeful knowledge. It cannot however be denied, that the materials for this ſubject are often defective; many things are overlooked at the time of writing, as matters that are generally known, and that can never be forgotten, which if recorded would afford the greateſt lights to poſterity. It is probably owing to their want of preciſion in the antient writers, and to the fondneſs of ſyſtem in the moderns, that we now find it ſo difficult to trace the hiſtory of our antient conſtitution, or to define the exact powers of the different parts of it; and from thence ariſe the great diverſity of opinions relative to theſe ſubjects.

It happens fortunately, with reſpect to the work before us, that the age of Henry the ſecond produced better writers than had appeared for ſeveral hundred years before or after that era, ſo that it may not perhaps be an abſolute impropriety to call it the middle claſſical age. The noble author has alſo availed himſelf of ſome materials, which are to be found in few other periods of antient or modern times, viz. collections of letters, written on affairs of great moment, by ſome of the principal actors in thoſe affairs, or perſons employed by them, and deep in their confidence. From theſe he takes almoſt all the particulars of Henry's quarrel with Becket, and they ſerve to throw light on many other important tranſactions. His Lordſhip has neglected nothing that could elucidate his ſubject; he has examined the moſt ancient records that are in being; the ſcarceſt manuſcripts; the pipe-rolls of the exchequer; and whatever elſe that could in any degree ſerve to remove error, or to aſcertain fact; and from this laborious courſe of enquiry, we find the ſeries of events in this hiſtory better aſcertained, than perhaps in any other work of the kind that ever was publiſhed.

Henry the ſecond was one of the greateſt princes, in extent of dominion, in magnanimity and in abilities, that ever governed this nation. Whether we conſider him as a hero, or a ſtateſman; whether in the field giving law to his enemies, or at home adminiſtering juſtice to his people; we find him equally great, and his actions equally ſurprizing. His life is particularly inſtructive, from the uncommon variety of the events it contains; from its being diſtinguiſhed by great virtues and great faults; by ſudden and ſurprizing changes of fortune in the affairs of this kingdom; by the ſubjection of Wales, of Scotland, and of Ireland; and by a glory ſurpaſſing all military atchievements, the reformation of government, and the eſtabliſhment of good laws and wiſe inſtitutions, beneficial to the public.

Though this period has been included in the general hiſtories of other writers, yet it muſt be acknowledged, that in works of ſo vaſt an extent, there cannot be ſuch a full detail of particulars, nor ſo much exactneſs and accuracy, as in thoſe that are confined to narrower limits. It is only in the latter, that the ſeveral ſteps and preparatory meaſures, by which great

great actions are conducted, and great events are brought on, can be ſhewn with any clearneſs. Much, therefore, in this hiſtory will be new to many readers; and many matters, which have been already ſubjects of diſcuſſion, will here appear in a new light. In particular, the reſearches which the noble author has made into the antient laws and conſtitution of England, and the feudal inſtitutions and tenures, will be found well worth the attention of every Engliſhman. The ſtate of the church, of the royal revenues, of the exchequer, and of the military government, are treated with equal perſpicuity and elegance, and new lights thrown upon ſome of them which they had not before received. The account his Lordſhip gives of the croiſades, and the orders of knighthood, are highly curious and entertaining; and the warmth with which upon all occaſions he vindicates the general rights of mankind, muſt procure him the ſuffrages of all lovers of liberty,

The preſent publication conſiſts of three volumes in quarto; but the work is unfiniſhed, three of the five books only of which it conſiſts, being contained in theſe volumes. The firſt volume contains, beſides the hiſtory of the revolutions, which we have already taken notice of, the firſt book of the life of Henry the ſecond, containing the hiſtory of that prince, from his birth till he aſcended the throne; and includes the principal occurrences of the life of King Stephen. The ſecond volume contains the ſecond and third books of the hiſtory, which bring it down to the death of Becket in 1170.

The 3d volume conſiſts of notes upon the ſecond, and the authorities upon which the former volumes are founded. The hiſtory from the death of Becket in 1170, to the death of Henry, which happened in 1189, nineteen years afterwards, is wanting; but though we have no particular information upon the ſubject, we have ſome reaſon to hope it will ſoon make its appearance.

Upon the whole, whether we conſider the work with reſpect to the labour attending it, the weight of the matter it contains, the clearneſs, accuracy, and perſpicuity of its manner, or the elegance of its compoſition, we cannot help thinking it one of the beſt hiſtories that has appeared in the Engliſh language, and a moſt valuable acquiſition to the knowledge of our country.

From the nature of this work, it is ſcarce poſſible to make any abſtracts of it, without mutilating or diſgracing the original. We ſhall however, as we go along, occaſionally touch upon ſome particular paſſages, which we apprehend are put in a new light, or where the noble author differs in opinion on material points from ſome other writers.

His Lordſhip obſerves that William the firſt was ſo far from grounding his title to the crown of England upon a ſuppoſed right of *conqueſt*, that he uſed his utmoſt endeavours to eſtabliſh the notion of his being *heir to King Edward, from the appointment of that monarch*. And that he was crowned, not without the appearance and

form

form of an election, or free acknowledgment of his claim; for the archbiſhop of York and the biſhop of Coutance, who officiated in the ceremony, ſeparately demanded of the nobility, prelates, and people of both nations, (Engliſh and Normans) who were preſent and aſſiſting, *whether they conſented that he ſhould reign over them?* and, with joyful acclamations, they anſwered, that *they did.* Before he aſcended the throne, he made a compact with his new ſubjects, by his coronation oath, the ſame with that of the Saxon kings.—

"A diſtinction is to be made between the *government* of William the Firſt, which was very tyrannical, and the *conſtitution* eſtabliſhed under him in this kingdom, which was no abſolute monarchy, but an ingraftment of the feudal tenures and other cuſtoms of Normandy upon the ancient Saxon laws of Edward the Confeſſor. He more than once ſwore to maintain thoſe laws, and in the fourth year of his reign confirmed them in parliament; yet not without great alterations, to which the whole legiſlature agreed, by a more compleat introduction of the ſtrict feudal law, as it was practiſed in Normandy; which produced a different political ſyſtem, and changed both power and property in many reſpects; though the firſt principles of that law, and general notions of it, had been in uſe among the Engliſh ſome ages before. But that the liberty of the ſubject was not ſo deſtroyed by theſe alterations, as ſome writers have ſuppoſed, plainly appears by the very ſtatutes that William enacted; in one of which we find an expreſs declaration, "That all "the freemen in his kingdom "ſhould hold and enjoy their "lands and poſſeſſions free from "all unjuſt exaction and from all "tallage; ſo that nothing ſhould "be exacted or taken of them "but their free ſervice, which "they by right owed to the "crown, and were bound to per-"form." It is further ſaid, "That this was ordained and "granted to them as an heredi-"tary right for ever, *by the com-"mon council of the kingdom*" Which very remarkable ſtatute is juſtly ſtiled by a learned author Nathaniel Bacon, *the firſt Magna Charta of the Normans.* And it extended no leſs to the *Engliſh* than to the *Normans.*"

The noble writer is of opinion, that the Engliſh were not reduced ſo low by William the Conqueror, even at the end of his reign (as ſome writers have ſuppoſed) as to be mere abject drudges and ſlaves to the Normans. In proof of which he ſhews, that the very year after his death they raiſed an army of *thirty thouſand men*, in ſupport of his ſon William Rufus againſt his brother Robert and the whole force of the Normans; which army ſerved him bravely and faithfully in his diſtreſs, and to them he chiefly owed his preſervation. So that their force was ſufficient to maintain that prince of the royal family, who courted them moſt, upon the throne of this kingdom, againſt all the efforts of the contrary faction: a very remarkable fact, which almoſt retrieved the honour of the nation.

The account his Lordſhip gives of

of the acceſſion of Henry the Firſt, and the great things he did for public liberty, contains ſome curious and uncommon obſervations.

"The nation reſolved to give the crown to a prince, who ſhould acquire and hold it under no other claim than a *compact* with his people: and though it would be difficult to juſtify their proceedings either in conſcience or law, their policy may perhaps be accounted not unwiſe; as it made the title of the king become ſecurity for the liberty of the ſubject. To give that liberty a more ſolid and laſting eſtabliſhment, they demanded a *charter*; which Henry granted ſoon after his coronation, as he had ſworn to do before he was crowned. By this he reſtored the Saxon laws which were in uſe under Edward the Confeſſor, but with ſuch alterations, or (as he ſtyled them) *emendations, as had been made in them by his father with the advice of his parliament*; at the ſame time annulling *all evil cuſtoms and illegal exactions, by which the realm had been unjuſtly oppreſſed.* Some of thoſe grievances were ſpecified in the charter, and the redreſs of them was there expreſsly enacted. It alſo contained very conſiderable mitigations of thoſe feudal rights, claimed by the king over his tenants, and by them over theirs, which either were the moſt burthenſome in their own nature, or had been made ſo by an abuſive extenſion. In ſhort, all the liberty, that could well be conſiſtent with the ſafety and intereſt of the lord in his fief, was allowed to the vaſſal by this charter, and the profits due to the former were ſettled according to a determined and moderate rule of law. To uſe the words of one of our greateſt antiquaries, Sir Henry Spelman, *It was the original of king John's Magna Charta, containing moſt of the articles of it, either particularly expreſſed, or in general, under the confirmation it gives to the laws of Edward the Confeſſor.* So miſtaken are they, who have ſuppoſed that all the privileges granted in *Magna Charta* were *innovations* extorted by the arms of rebels from king John! a notion which ſeems to have been firſt taken up, not ſo much out of ignorance, as from a baſe motive of adulation to ſome of our princes in latter times, who, endeavouring to graſp at abſolute power, were deſirous of any pretence to conſider theſe laws, which ſtood in their way, as violent encroachments made by the barons on the ancient rights of the crown: whereas they were in reality reſtitutions and ſanctions of ancient rights enjoyed by the nobility and people of England in former reigns; or limitations of powers which the king had illegally and arbitrarily ſtretched beyond their due bounds. In ſome reſpects this charter of Henry the Firſt was more advantageous to liberty than *Magna Charta* itſelf."

The account which our noble author gives of the military art in the times of which he treats, together with his obſervations on the ſtate of naval affairs in England before and during that period, are ſo curious, that we ſhall tranſcribe the whole in his own words.

"The military art, during the times of which I write, was in many particulars the ſame with

with that of the ancient Romans. We are informed by a contemporary German hiſtorian, that, in the methods of encamping, and of beſieging towns or caſtles, the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa followed their rules. And the hiſtories of the holy war, written within the ſame age, deſcribe the ſieges made in Aſia, by the Engliſh and French, agreeably to thoſe carried on under the diſcipline of that nation. We have one compoſed by an Engliſhman, Geoffry de Vineſauf, that gives a particular relation of the ſiege of Acre, or Ptolemais, to which he accompanied King Richard the Firſt. It appears from thence, that the beſiegers, among other machines which had been uſed by the Romans, had moveable towers, built of wood, and of ſuch a height, that the tops of them overlooked the battlements of the city. They were covered with raw hides, to prevent their being burnt; and had alſo a network of ropes which hung before them, and was intended to deaden the violence of the ſtones, that were thrown againſt them from the engines of the beſieged. Thoſe engines were called by this author *petrariæ*, but were the *baliſtæ* of the ancients; and, according to his account of them, their force was prodigious: they threw ſtones of a vaſt weight, and were employed by the beſiegers to batter the walls, as by the beſieged to defend them. He likewiſe mentions the croſs-bow among the weapons made uſe of in that ſiege. It had been introduced into England by William the Conqueror, who greatly availed himſelf of it, at the battle of Haſtings: but the ſecond Lateran council having forbidden it in wars between Chriſtian nations, it was laid aſide in this country, during the reigns of king Stephen and of Henry the Second. Nevertheleſs Richard the Firſt, at his return out of Paleſtine, brought it again into France, very fatally for himſelf, as he was killed ſoon afterwards by an arrow ſhot out of that engine.

The manner of fortifying towns and caſtles, as well as the methods both of attack and defence, were ſtill much the ſame as had been uſed by the Romans: but the armies differed much from thoſe of that people; for their principal ſtrength was in the cavalry; whereas, among the Romans, it was in the legions, which were chiefly compoſed of infantry. And this variation produced others, in the manner of fighting, and of ranging the troops. Yet, upon many occaſions, the horſemen diſmounted to fight on foot; and this ſeems to have been done by the Engliſh more frequently than by moſt other nations. The infantry, for the moſt part, were archers and ſlingers; nor were there any in the world more excellent at that time than thoſe belonging to this iſland, the Normans having communicated their ſkill to the Saxons, and the Welſh being famous for ſtrength, and dexterity in drawing the bow. The offenſive arms of the cavalry were lances and ſwords: but they alſo uſed battle-axes, and maces of different ſorts; and ſome fought with ponderous mallets or clubs of iron. I cannot better deſcribe their defenſive armour, than by tranſlating the words of a contemporary hiſtorian, who has given an account of the

manner

manner in which the order of knighthood was conferred on the father of king Henry the Second. "They put on him [ſays that author] an incomparable habergeon, compoſed of double plates or ſcollops of ſteel, which no arrow or lance could penetrate. They gave him cuiſhes, or boots of iron, made equally ſtrong. They put gilt ſpurs on his feet, and hung on his neck a ſhield, or buckler, on which lions of gold were painted. On his head they placed a helmet, which glittered all over with precious ſtones, and was ſo well forged, that no ſword could cleave or pierce it."

This armour, it may be preſumed, was richer than that of ordinary knights, and of more excellent workmanſhip in the temper of the ſteel; but in other reſpects much the ſame. The habergeons, or coats of mail, were different from the cuiraſſes uſed in later times, being formed of double plates of iron, and covering the arms and ſhoulders of the knights, as well as their bodies. Under theſe they wore other coats, of leather or of taffety, quilted with wool. The ſeveral parts of the outward armour were ſo artfully joined, that the whole man was defended by it from head to foot, and rendered almoſt invulnerable, except by contuſions, or by the point of a lance or ſword running into his eye, through the holes that were left for ſight in the vizor of the helmet; but if it happened that the horſe was killed or thrown down, or that the rider was diſmounted, he could make but little reſiſtance, and was either taken priſoner, or ſlain on the ground with ſhort daggers, which were uſually worn by the horſemen for that purpoſe. It being cuſtomary for all who were taken in war to ranſom themſelves with ſums of money which were generally paid to thoſe who took them, in proportion to the rank of the captives, good quarter was given.

There is a remarkable paſſage, relating to this ſubject, in Odericus Vitalis, a writer contemporary with king Henry the Firſt. He tells us, that, in a battle between Louis le Gros and that prince, of which an account has been given in a former part of this work, nine hundred knights were engaged, and only two of them killed: "becauſe (ſays the hiſtorian) they were cloathed all over with iron, and from their fear of God, and the acquaintance they had contracted by living together, they ſpared one another, and rather deſired to take than kill thoſe who fled." Some battles in Italy, which Machiavel has deſcribed as fought by the mercenary bands of that country, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, were of the ſame kind. But it muſt be obſerved, that one of the reaſons here given by Odericus Vitalis why ſo few of the knights, or men at arms, were ſlain in this action, viz. that they ſpared one another, out of regard to the acquaintance they had contracted by living together, did not hold in engagements between different nations, that were not ſo connected as the French and Normans; nor in civil wars, where the animoſity is increaſed, not diminiſhed, by the knowledge which the adverſe parties have of each other: and therefore in theſe we do not find that the

the battles were ſo harmleſs: yet the greateſt ſlaughter was generally made of the foot, who were neither ſo well armed for defence as the knights, nor able to pay ſo high a price for their ranſoms.

Roger de Hoveden ſpeaks of horſes covered with armour in the reign of Richard the Firſt: but I find no mention thereof in the times of which I write; and that they were not uſually ſo armed in the reign of Henry the Firſt, may be proved from an action before related, between Odo de Borleng, and the barons of Normandy, who had revolted againſt that prince, in which all the horſes of the rebels were killed by the arrows of the Engliſh, though not one of the riders was wounded.

In the above-recited paſſage, concerning the arms that were given to Geoffry Plantagenet, when he received the order of knighthood, it is ſaid, "they brought "him a lance of aſh, armed with "the ſteel of Poitou, and a ſword "from the royal treaſury, where "it had been laid up from old "times, being the workmanſhip "of Galan, the moſt excellent "of all ſwordſmiths, who had ex"erted in forging it his utmoſt "art and labour." A ſkillful ſwordſmith was then ſo neceſſary to a warrior, that it is no wonder the name of one who excelled in his profeſſion ſhould be thus recorded in hiſtory, and a ſword of his making depoſited in the treaſury of a king. It muſt be obſerved, that, in thoſe days, a ſuperior degree of bodily ſtrength gave a double advantage: for the ſtrongeſt knight could wear the heavieſt armour; whereby he was better ſecured than others againſt the weapons of an enemy; and at the ſame time he could wield the moſt ponderous weapons, which the armour of others was unable to reſiſt. This advantage was ſtill encreaſed, if his ſword was finely tempered, and his defenſive arms were rendered more impenetrable by the ſkill of the armourer in preparing the ſteel. Thus ſome extraordinary acts of perſonal valour, which are related in our ancient hiſtories, and ſeem to us quite incredible, may indeed be true. A ſingle man, in a narrow paſs, may have defended it againſt a great number of aſſailants; and the ſucceſs of a battle may have ſometimes been decided by the particular proweſs of a few knights, or men at arms. Geoffry de Vineſauf, in his account of the cruſade againſt Saladin, makes the officers of the Turkiſh forces ſay to that prince, in excuſe of their having been beaten in an engagement with the Engliſh, *that they could not hurt the enemy, who were not armed as they were, but with impenetrable armour, which yielded to no weapons; ſo that in aſſaulting them they ſeemed to ſtrike againſt flints.* The ſame author deſcribes the Turks in another part of his book, as being armed very ſlightly, but bearing a quiver full of arrows, a club ſet thick with ſharp ſpikes, a ſword, a light javelin, and a ſhort dagger or knife. Yet it appears, from his own relations of ſeveral battles, that with theſe weapons they often killed a great number of the Chriſtians: and therefore we muſt underſtand the paſſage before cited with ſome allowance for a degree of exaggeration. We alſo find that the armour of the knights in thoſe days was not al-

ways proof againſt arrows from Welſh or Engliſh bows. And ſuch violent ſtrokes were given with maces and clubs of iron, as no helmets could reſiſt. Beſides the heavy cavalry, there was a ſort of light horſe, that only wore an habergeon and ſcull-cap of that metal. Some of the infantry had alſo ſcull-caps and jacquettes of mail, with targets of wood, or light breaſt-plates. It was cuſtomary for knights to bear their coats of arms painted, either upon the rims, or in the middle of their ſhields; and their helmets were adorned with different creſts, which, together with the arms, remained to their families. Some good authors have aſcribed the origin of this cuſtom, from whence the modern ſcience of heraldry was derived, to the inſtitution of tilts and tournaments, in the tenth century: but others date it from the cruſade under Godfrey of Bouillon, when the confuſion ariſing from ſo great a number of noblemen of different nations ſerving together, made them invent theſe diſtinctions. A late ingenious French writer has very juſtly obſerved, that wearing ſuch enſigns on their ſhields, and appropriating them to diſtinguiſh particular families, could not have been the general practice in Europe, till after the death of William the Conqueror: for, if it had, his ſon Robert muſt have known him by his armour, and could not have ignorantly thrown him to the ground, as hath been related in the book prefixed to this hiſtory.

Tilts and tournaments, we are told, were firſt introduced into Germany by the emperor Henry, ſurnamed the Fowler, who died in the year nine hundred and thirty-ſix; and who, among other ordinances relating to thoſe ſports, forbad the admitting of any perſon to jouſt, who could not prove a nobility of four deſcents. Soon afterwards they were brought into England by King Edgar; and, in the following century, were eſtabliſhed all over France. Geoffry de Preuilly, a baron of Anjou, is mentioned, in ſome of the hiſtories or chronicles of that age, as the firſt who introduced them into that kingdom: but Father Daniel rather thinks, that he only drew up a code of laws, by which they were regulated; and that thoſe regulations had been ſettled by the king and the nobility in their aſſemblies.

Theſe entertainments are juſtly called, by ſome of our ancient hiſtorians, *military exerciſes* and *preludes of war*. For they were of very great uſe to inſtruct the nobility in all the methods of fighting which prevailed at that time, but eſpecially in the dextrous management of their horſes and lances. They alſo keep up a martial diſpoſition, and an eager emulation for military glory, in time of peace. But, as they were frequently attended with accidents fatal to the lives of the combatants, Pope Innocent the Second and Eugenius the Third made canons againſt them, by which all who ſhould die in them were denied Chriſtian burial. Yet, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of this prohibition, they continued in France; and a few of them were held under King Stephen in England: but Henry the Second, from the humanity of his nature; or, perhaps, to ſhew his reſpect for the authority of the church,

church, where the intereſt of the ſtate did not abſolutely oppoſe it, moſt ſtrictly forbad them. His ſons revived the practice of them, eſpecially his ſucceſſor, Richard; whoſe ardour for them was violent; becauſe no perſon excelled in them more than himſelf: nor did they entirely ceaſe in England till the latter end of the ſixteenth century: for, in the year fifteen hundred and ſeventy-two, among other pomps for the entertainment of the duke of Anjou, Queen Elizabeth held a tournament in the tilt-yard at London, where Sir Philip Sidney won the prize: and carouſals, another mode of them, but not ſo dangerous, continued in uſe under James and Charles the Firſt. It muſt be likewiſe remarked, that altho' tournaments were prohibited by King Henry the Second, the exerciſes practiſed there, and the emulation excited by them, were not intermitted during the courſe of his reign. A contemporary writer informs us, in giving an account of the city of London, that on every Sunday in Lent, the ſons of the citizens ſallied forth in troops from the gates, mounted on war-horſes, and armed with ſhields and lances, or, inſtead of lances, with javelins, the iron of which was taken off, in order to exerciſe themſelves in a repreſentation and image of war, by mock-fights, and other acts of military contention. He adds too, that many courtiers, from the neighbouring palace, and young gentlemen of noble families, who had not yet been knighted, came to combat with them, on theſe occaſions. It cannot be doubted, that thoſe noblemen, who had been honoured with knighthood, had proper places of exerciſe, for keeping up their ſkill in horſemanſhip, and the dexterity they had acquired in the management of their arms. The abovementioned author ſays further, that on every holiday, throughout the whole ſummer, it was uſual for the young citizens to go out into the fields, and practiſe archery, wreſtling, throwing of ſtones and miſſile weapons, with other ſuch martial ſports. And, during the feſtival of Eaſter, they repreſented a kind of naval fight on the river Thames.

The moſt particular and authentic account I have met with of the navies in thoſe days, and alſo of the manner of fighting at ſea, is in the before-cited hiſtory of Geoffry de Vineſauf. From his deſcription it appears, that the ſhips of war were all *gallies*; but he ſays, that in his time they had generally no more than two rows of oars: and he adds, that the veſſel, which the Romans called *Liburna*, was then named a galley; being long, narrow, and low-built. To the prow was affixed a piece of wood, commonly then called *a ſpur*, but by the ancients, a *roſtrum*; which was deſigned to ſtrike and pierce the ſhips of the enemy: but there were alſo leſſer gallies, with only one tier of oars: which being ſhorter, and therefore moved with greater facility, were fitter for throwing wild-fire, and made uſe of to that purpoſe. The ſame writer has related all the circumſtances of a ſea-fight, which the Chriſtians, who were going to the ſiege of Ptolemais, had with the Turks, on that coaſt. He

tells us, that when the fleets were advancing to engage, that of the Chriſtians was drawn up, not in a ſtrait line of battle, but in a creſcent or half-moon; to the intent that, if the enemy ſhould attempt to break in, they might be incloſed in that curve, and conſequently overpowered. In the front of the half-moon (that is, at the two ends of the curve) the Chriſtians placed their ſtrongeſt galleys, that they might attack with more alacrity, and better repel the attacks of the enemy. On the upper deck of each galley the ſoldiers belonging to it were drawn up in a circle, with their bucklers cloſely joined; and on the lower deck the rowers ſat altogether, ſo that thoſe who were to fight, and were placed above for that purpoſe, might have the more room. The action began on both ſides, with a diſcharge of their miſſile weapons: then the Chriſtians rowed forwards, as ſwiftly as they could, and ſhocked the enemy's galleys with the ſpurs or beaks of theirs: after which they came to cloſe fighting; the oppoſite oars were mixed and entangled together; they fixed the galleys to each other by grappling irons thrown out on both ſides; and fired the planks with a kind of burning oil, commonly called *Greek wild-fire*. The account which the ſame hiſtorian gives of *that wild fire* is worth tranſcribing. His words are theſe: "*With a pernicious ſtench and livid* "*flames it conſumes even flint and* "*iron: nor can it be extinguiſhed by* "*water: but by ſprinkling ſand upon* "*it the violence of it may be abated;* "*and vinegar poured upon it will* "*put it out.*"

We know of none ſuch at preſent. The compoſition was firſt diſcovered by Callinicus, an architect, who came from Syria to Conſtantinople; and the Greek emperors, for ſome time, kept the ſecret to themſelves. Conſtantine Porphyrogenitus, in his treatiſe on the adminiſtration of the empire, which he dedicated to his ſon, adviſes that prince to anſwer the barbarians, who ſhould deſire him to give them any of the *Greek fire*, that he was not allowed to part with it, *becauſe an angel, who gave it to Conſtantine the Great, commanded him to refuſe it to all other nations*. While this advice was adhered to, the wild-fire proved of great uſe to the defence of the empire; ſeveral fleets, which came to invade Conſtantinople, having been burnt and deſtroyed by it: but it appears by the paſſage above-quoted, that in the twelfth century the ſecret was known to many other nations, and even to the Mahometans. I find alſo that it was uſed in the attack and defence of towns and caſtles.

The Saxon chronicle tells us, that King Alfred, to oppoſe the invaſions of the Danes, ordered a number of ſhips, or rather galleys, to be built upon a new model, different from thoſe which were uſed by that nation, or by the Friſons; being higher than any of theirs, and almoſt twice as long; better ſailors, more ſteady, and more proper for war. Of theſe ſome had ſixty oars, and others more. Experience ſhewed that they were ſuperior to any of thoſe ſhips, with which the northern corſairs had infeſted the coaſts of England, till this admirable prince, whoſe genius and

and application to whatever might conduce to the benefit of the public inſtructed his ſubjects in all kinds of uſeful knowledge, made this improvement in the naval architecture of the Anglo-Saxons. His ſon and grandſons, after the wiſe example he had ſet them, kept up very ſtrong fleets, which not only protected, but enlarged their dominions. And (if we may believe the accounts of ſome ancient hiſtorians) his great grandſon Edgar raiſed the maritime force of England to ſuch a degree, as cannot be paralleled in the hiſtory of any other nation. They tell us, that this monarch had three ſeveral fleets, each of twelve hundred ſail, and all ſtout ſhips, which were ſtationed to guard the different coaſts of his kingdom; and that every year he cruiſed in each of theſe ſquadrons, ſo as to make, within that time, the whole tour of the iſland. If theſe ſhips had been built upon the ſame model as Alfred's, the number of rowers aboard of them, allowing but one to each oar, would have exceeded two hundred thouſand, beſides the mariners that were neceſſary to manage the ſails, and ſoldiers for battle. But ſuppoſing that three in four of them were of a much ſmaller ſize, and carried no more than four and twenty men each, which was the loweſt complement of any that we read of in thoſe days, the number is ſtill greater than England, not united either with Scotland or Wales, could poſſibly furniſh, to be kept, as it is ſaid theſe were, in conſtant employment. I am therefore ſurpriſed that Mr. Seldon, in one of his moſt important and elaborate works, ſhould ſeem to have given credit to this account, which certainly is exaggerated very far beyond the truth: though it is probable that King Edgar had a much ſtronger fleet, and more conſtantly maintained on all the coaſts of his kingdom, than moſt of his predeceſſors; becauſe we find that he enjoyed a ſettled peace, through the whole courſe of his reign, unmoleſted by any of the people of the North, or other foreign ſtates. Yet he had not been dead above ſix or ſeven years, when the naval power of the Engliſh was ſo ſtrangely reduced, or ſo ill managed, that a Daniſh ſquadron of ſeven ſhips was able to inſult ſome parts of their coaſt, and to plunder their town of Southampton. Nor did the loſs and diſhonour which the nation had ſuſtained by this deſcent, excite them to reſtore, or better regulate, their maritime forces. For, ten years afterwards, Ethelred, or rather thoſe who had the direction of public buſineſs, during the tender years of that prince, could find no means of delivering the kingdom from theſe invaders, but by giving them money; for the raiſing of which a new tax, called *danegeld*, was impoſed on the people.

The natural effect of this timid meaſure was to draw on other invaſions. They accordingly happened; and more compoſitions of the ſame nature were exacted, each new payment being higher than the foregoing: ſo that from ten thouſand they came to eight and forty thouſand pounds: a great ſum in thoſe days! One vigorous effort was indeed made by Ethelred, in the year one thouſand and eight, to free himſelf and his people from this infamous tribute, by a general tax on all the land of the kingdom, for the fitting out of a

fleet, which might effectually guard it againſt the Danes. Every three hundred and ten hides of land was charged to furniſh a galley of three rows of oars, and every eight hides to provide a coat of mail and a helmet; which armour was for the ſoldiers, deſigned to be employed as marines, aboard of the fleet. This was done with the advice and conſent of the parliament, or *witena gemote*: and the Saxon chronicle tells us, that the number of ſhips built and equipt the next year, by means of this impoſition, was greater than any, that the Engliſh nation had ever furniſhed under any former king. Mr. Seldon obſerves, that according to a computation made in Camden's *Britannia*, from rolls of that age, the number of hides of land in England did not exceed two hundred and forty-three thouſand ſix hundred; which makes the number of ſhips obtained by this hidage ſeven hundred and eighty-five. This apparently was a fleet ſufficient to have maintained the ſovereignty of our ſeas againſt any other nation. Yet, by violent tempeſts and wicked treachery, it was ſoon deſtroyed; and the wretched expedient of compounding with the Danes was again taken up; which at laſt proceeded ſo far, that, in the year one thouſand and twelve, the Engliſh nobility, after paying the tribute (though too late to prevent the enemy from over-running and ſubduing a great part of the kingdom) hired a ſquadron of Daniſh ſhips to guard their coaſts againſt the attack of other corſairs. All England being ſoon afterwards ſubjected to Canute, that prince, in the year one thouſand and eighteen, diſmiſſed all his Daniſh fleet, except forty ſhips, which he retained to ſecure his new-acquired dominions: but, in the year one thouſand and twenty-eight, he carried with him to Norway fifty-five ſhips of war, which his Engliſh Thanes provided for him, and by which he was enabled to conquer that kingdom. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Harold Harefoot, who reigned only four years, laid a tax upon the Engliſh, to maintain conſtantly in his ſervice ſixteen ſhips of war, allowing eight marks to each rower, according to the eſtabliſhment ſettled by Canute. His brother, Hardicanute, encreaſed that number to ſixty-two, with the ſame allowance to each rower; for the defraying of which there was paid, in the ſecond year of that king, twenty-one thouſand and ninety-nine pounds; but preſently afterwards he reduced the number of ſhips to thirty-two, and the charge to eleven thouſand and forty-eight pounds. In truth, it was not neceſſary that theſe Daniſh princes ſhould keep any great naval forces for the defence of this iſland; as they themſelves had the dominion of thoſe northern countries, from whence the former invaſions and deſcents had been made; and as no other power, then exiſting, could pretend to diſpute with them the empire of the ocean.

Hiſtorians relate that Earl Godwin, to appeaſe the anger of his ſovereign, Hardicanute, for the ſhare he had in the death of Alfred, that prince's brother, preſented him with a ſhip, the beak of which was of gold, and which carried eighty ſoldiers, of whom every one had on each arm a golden bracelet that weighed ſixteen ounces; on his head an iron helmet, gilt with gold,

gold, as were alſo the other parts of his armour; on his left ſhoulder a Daniſh battle-axe, and in his hand a javelin: which circumſtances I here mention, not ſo much on account of the richneſs of the gift, as to ſhew the number of ſoldiers that, in thoſe days, ſerved aboard of ſhips of war, and how they were armed. For it may reaſonably be ſuppoſed, that this galley was equipt in much the ſame manner as others were at that time, except the peculiar magnificence of the gold in the beak and in the ornaments of the ſoldiers.

What was the ordinary ſtrength of the royal navy, from the times of William the Conqueror to thoſe of Henry the Second incluſively, or to what number of ſhips it was encreaſed upon extraordinary exigences, we are not well informed. But it appears from a paſſage in the *Red book of the Exchequer*, that the *Cinque Ports*, during thoſe times, were obliged by their tenures, to provide fifty-two ſhips, and twenty-four men in each ſhip, for fifteen days, at their own charges, to defend the coaſts, when required. And not only theſe, but other maritime, and even ſome inland towns, held by the ſame kind of ſervice. This ſeems to have been the conſtant ſupport of the navy: but upon extraordinary occaſions danegeld was levied: and, although at the end of that century the name was loſt, a like proviſion was often made, in every age, by our parliaments, for the defence of the Britiſh ſeas and ſecurity of the kingdom.

It has been mentioned in a former part of this work, that the Engliſh fleet in the channel did William Rufus good ſervice againſt his brother; a great number of Normans, who were coming over to ſupport the pretenſions of the latter having been deſtroyed in their paſſage, by the ſhips that guarded the coaſt of Suſſex; which ſo intimidated Robert, that he durſt not attempt another embarkation. A ſufficient fleet was likewiſe ſent by Henry the Firſt, at the beginning of his reign, to oppoſe that prince in his paſſage between Normandy and England: but a part of it joined him; which enabled him to land without difficulty; and a peace being ſoon concluded between the two brothers, this iſland remained exempt from the invaſions of foreigners, or any alarm of that nature, till the war excited againſt Henry by the ſon of Duke Robert obliged him again to provide for the defence of his realm, by a proper exertion of its maritime power.

During the reign of Stephen the Engliſh navy declined much in its ſtrength, and we cannot wonder that it did: for the long inteſtine war, which deſolated the kingdom, ruined its commerce: without which it is impoſſible for any prince to maintain a naval power. This was reſtored, and, probably, augmented, by Henry the Second: yet it ſeems, that, till the latter part of his reign, he made no efforts to fit out any powerful fleets: becauſe, being maſter of almoſt all the French coaſt, and in cloſe alliance with the earls of Flanders and Boulogne, he feared no invaſion. For the kings of Denmark had given up all intentions of renewing their claim to England; nor did their ſubjects, or any other of the northern nations, continue thoſe pira-

tical expeditions, which had been ſo troubleſome to the Engliſh in former times. It ſeemed therefore unneceſſary for Henry the Second to guard his coaſts by great fleets; and, being buſied upon the continent, he chiefly turned his thoughts to the encreaſing and ſtrengthening of his land-forces, which he might better make uſe of, either to defend or enlarge his territories in France. Geoffry de Vineſauf tells us, that after king Richard the Firſt had made himſelf maſter of Cyprus, when all his galleys were arrived in one of the ports of that iſland, the number of them, including five which he had taken from the Cypriots and added to his own, amounted to a hundred; whereof ſixty were ſuperior to the common armed galleys. And in another place he ſays, that a fleet ſo fine, and ſo well provided, had never been ſeen before. Beſides the galleys, Richard had with him, when he ſailed from the harbour of Meſſina in Sicily, a hundred and fifty great ſhips, which he uſed as tranſports. Theſe, we are told, he had ſelected from all the ſhipping in the ports of England, Normandy, Poitou, and his other maritime territories. That moſt of the galleys were built before the death of his father I think very probable; for they could not otherwiſe have been ready to put to ſea in ſo ſhort a time after. A manuſcript chronicle of the age of Henry the Third, cited by Spelman in his Gloſſary, ſays, that fifty of theſe were *triremes*, viz. galleys of three rows of oars; and that, among the other ſhips, thirteen, diſtinguiſhed there by the name of *buſſes*, carried, each of them, three maſts. Upon the whole I preſume, that the more numerous fleets, mentioned before in the Engliſh hiſtory, conſiſted of veſſels much ſmaller than this of Richard."

The following remarks on the feudal ſyſtem are equally new and curious.

"Is was a general maxim of the feudal law, that a forfeiture of the property of the lord in the fief, and of all his dominion over his vaſſal, was as neceſſary an effect of any great breach or neglect of the duty which he owed to his vaſſal, as the forfeiture of the fief was of a ſimilar crime or neglect in the vaſſal. Indeed this principle, which is ſo conſonant to natural equity and natural liberty, was the corner ſtone of the whole policy ſettled in England by the Normans. So that our kings, conſidered as feudal lords of this kingdom, were bound no leſs to protect their vaſſals in all their juſt rights and privileges, than their vaſſals were to ſerve them; and a failure, on either ſide, in theſe reciprocal duties, deſtroyed the connection, and diſſolved the obligations of the party offended. The inferior vaſſals, in all degrees of ſubinfeudation, were likewiſe, by virtue of the abovementioned maxim, entirely freed from the bond of their homage and fealty to their reſpective lords, if theſe did not acquit themſelves of what they owed to them, agreeably to the nature and conditions of their original compact. It is therefore very apparent, that the ſpirit of this ſyſtem was moſt abhorrent from tyranny, and that the plan of it, in all its ſeveral parts, was deſigned as much to reſiſt any oppreſſive exertion of power within, as any attacks from foreign enemies."

We ſhall now give our readers his Lordſhip's curious account of the

the martyrdom of Becket, as it was called.

" While he (Becket) was thus preparing himself for that martyrdom which he said he expected, the archbishop of York and the bishops of London and Salisbury had gone over to Normandy, and at the feet of the king implored his justice and clemency, for themselves, for his whole clergy, and for his kingdom. When he had heard their complaints he was extremely incensed, and said, that, *if all who consented to his son's coronation were to be excommunicated*; *by the eyes of God, he himself should not be excepted.* The archbishop however entreated him to proceed with discretion and temper in this business. But not being able to master the violence of his passion, he broke out into furious expressions of anger, saying, " that a " man whom he had raised from the " dust trampled upon the whole " kingdom, dishonoured the whole " royal family, had driven him and " his children from the throne, and " triumphed there unresisted; and, " *that he was very unfortunate to* " *have maintained so many cowardly* " *and ungrateful men in his court,* " *none of whom would revenge him* " *of the injuries he sustained from one* " *turbulent priest.*" Having thus vented his rage, he thought no more of what he had said; but, unhappily for him, his words were taken notice of, by some of those pests of a court, who are ready to catch at every occasion of serving the passions of a prince to the prejudice of his honour and interest. Four gentlemen of his bedchamber, knights and barons of the kingdom, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracey, Hugh de Morevile, and Richard Brito, making no difference between a sally of anger, and a settled intention to command a wicked action, thought they should much oblige the king by murdering Becket. Nevertheless it appears, that they rather desired to induce that prelate, by threats and pretended orders from the king, to take off the censures which he had laid on the bishops; or, in case of his refusal, to carry him forcibly out of the kingdom: but if, from his resistance, they could not succeed in either of these purposes, they resolved, and even bound themselves by an execrable oath, to put him to death. Thus determined they passed hastily over to England, without the king's knowledge, and went to a castle belonging to Ranulf de Broc, about six miles from Canterbury, where they staid all the night, in consultation with him and Robert his brother, by what methods they should execute their flagitious undertaking. Ranulf had under his orders a band of soldiers, who had been employed for some time in guarding the coast. They agreed to take along with them a number of these, sufficient to hinder the citizens of Canterbury, or any of the knights of Becket's household, from attempting to aid him; and on the following day, being the twenty-ninth of December in the year eleven hundred and seventy, they came to Canterbury, concealing their arms as much as was possible, and dividing their followers into many small parties, that they might give no alarm. Presently afterwards the four knights entered the castle unarmed, and a message being sent by them to acquaint the archbishop, that they were

were come to ſpeak with him on the part of the king their maſter, he admitted them into his chamber, where they found him in converſation with ſome of his clergy. They ſat down before him without returning his ſalutation; and, after a long ſilence, Reginald Fitzurſe ſaid to him, "We bring "you orders from the king. Will "you hear them in public, or "in private?" Becket anſwered, "that ſhould be as pleaſed them "beſt." Fitzurſe then deſiring him to diſmiſs all his company, he bid them leave the room; but the porter kept the door open; and after the above-mentioned gentleman had delivered a part of what he called the king's orders, Becket, fearing ſome violence from the rough manner in which he ſpoke, called in again all the clergy who were in the antichamber, and told the four knights, that whatever they had to inform him of might be ſaid in their preſence. Whereupon Fitzurſe commanded him in the name of the king to releaſe the excommunicated and ſuſpended biſhops. He ſaid, the pope, not he, had paſſed that ſentence upon them, nor was it in his power to take it off. They replied, it was inflicted by his procurement. To which he boldly made anſwer, that if the pope had been pleaſed thus to avenge the injury done to the church, he confeſt, *it did not diſpleaſe him.* Theſe words gave occaſion to very bitter reproaches from the rage of Fitzurſe. He charged the biſhop with having violated the reconciliation ſo lately concluded, and having formed a deſign *to tear the crown from the head of the young king.* Becket made anſwer, that *ſaving the honour of God, and his own ſoul*, he earneſtly deſired to place many more crowns upon the head of that prince inſtead of taking this off, and loved him more tenderly than any other man could, except his royal father.

A vehement diſpute then aroſe between Fitzurſe and him, about ſome words which he affirmed the king to have ſpoken, on the day when his peace was made, permitting him to obtain what reparation or juſtice he could from the pope, againſt thoſe biſhops who had invaded the rights of his ſee, and even promiſing to aſſiſt him therein; for the truth of which he appealed to Fitzurſe himſelf, as having been preſent. But that gentleman conſtantly denied that he had heard it, or any thing like it; and urged the great improbability that the king ſhould have conſented to give up his friends to Becket's revenge for what they did by his orders. And certainly, if it was true, one cannot but wonder, that the archbiſhop ſhould not have mentioned it in any one of his letters, and particularly in the account which he wrote to the pope of all that paſſed on that day! The words he repeated there, as ſpoken by Henry, even admitting that they were given without any exaggeration, would not authoriſe the conſtruction he now put upon them. But that he himſelf did not believe he had ſuch a commiſſion appears from the apprehenſions he expreſt to his Holineſs, in a ſubſequent letter, of the offence that he ſhould give to the king by theſe acts, and from the ex-

extraordinary care he took to conceal his intention till after he had performed it.

Their converſation concerning this matter being ended, the four knights declared to him, it was the king's command, that he and all who belonged to him ſhould depart out of the kingdom: for that neither he nor his ſhould any longer enjoy the peace he had broken. He replied, that he would never again put the ſea between him and his church: adding, that it would not have been for the honour of the king to have ſent ſuch an order. They ſaid, they would prove that they brought it from the king, and urged, as a reaſon for it, Becket's having opprobriouſly caſt out of the church, at the inſtigation of his own furious paſſions, the miniſters and domeſtic ſervants of the king; whereas he ought to have left their examination and puniſhment to the royal juſtice. He anſwered with warmth, that if any man whatſoever preſumed to infringe the laws of the holy Roman ſee, or the rights of the church of Chriſt, and did not voluntarily make ſatisfaction, he would not ſpare ſuch an offender, nor delay any longer to pronounce eccleſiaſtical cenſures againſt him. They immediately roſe up, and going nearer to him, ſaid, "*We "give you notice that you have "ſpoken to the peril of your head.*" His anſwer was, "*Are you come "to kill me? I have committed my "cauſe to the ſupreme judge of all, "and am therefore unmoved at your "threats. Nor are your ſwords "more ready to ſtrike than my mind "is to ſuffer matyrdom.*" At theſe words one of them turned to the eccleſiaſticks there preſent, and in the name of the king commanded them to ſecure the perſon of Becket; declaring, they ſhould anſwer for him, if he eſcaped. Which being heard by him, he aſked the knights, "Why any of them "ſhould imagine he intended to "fly? *Neither for fear of the king,* "*nor of any one living, will I* "(ſaid he) *be driven to flight. I* "*came not hither to fly, but to ſtand* "*the malice of the impious, and the* "*rage of aſſaſſins.*" Upon this they went out, and commanded the knights of his houſhold, at the peril of their lives, to go with them, and wait the event in ſilence and tranquillity. Proclamation was likewiſe made to the ſame effect in the city. After their departure John of Saliſbury reproved the primate for having ſpoken to them ſo ſharply, and told him, he would have done better, if he had taken counſel of his friends what anſwer to make. But he replied, "There is no want of more "counſel. What I ought to do I "well know." Intelligence being brought to him that the four knights were arming, he ſaid with an air of unconcern, "What mat-"ters it? let them arm." Nevertheleſs ſome of his ſervants ſhut and barred the abbey-gate: after which the monks who were with him, alarmed at his danger, led him into the church, where the evening ſervice was performing, by a private way through the cloyſters.

The knights were now come before the gate of the abbey, and would have broken it open with inſtruments they had brought for

that purpoſe: but Robert de Broc, to whom the houſe was better known, ſhewed them a paſſage through a window, by which they got in, and, not finding Becket in any chamber of the palace, followed him to the cathedral. When the monks within ſaw them coming, they haſtened to lock the door; but the archbiſhop forbad them to do it, ſaying, "*You ought not to* "*make a caſtle of the church. It* "*will protect us ſufficiently without* "*being ſhut: nor did I come hither* "*to reſiſt, but to ſuffer.*" Which they not regarding, he himſelf opened the door, called in ſome of the monks, who ſtood without, and then went up to the high altar.

The knights, finding no obſtacle, ruſhed into the choir, and, brandiſhing their weapons, exclaimed, "Where is Thomas "Becket: where is that traitor to "the king and kingdom?" at which he making no anſwer, they called out more loudly, "Where "is the archbiſhop?" He then turned, and coming down the ſteps of the altar, "Here am I, "no traitor, but a prieſt. What "would you have with me? *I am* "*ready to ſuffer in the name of him* "*that redeemed me with his blood.* "*God forbid that I ſhould fly for* "*fear of your ſwords, or recede* "*from juſtice.*" They once more commanded him to take off the excommunication and ſuſpenſion of the biſhops. He replied, "No "ſatisfaction has yet been made; "nor will I abſolve them. Then "(ſaid they) thou ſhalt inſtantly "die, according to thy deſert. "*I am ready to die* (anſwered he) "*that the church may obtain liberty* "*and peace in my blood. But in* "*the name of God, I forbid you to* "*hurt any of my people.*" They now ruſhed upon him, and endeavoured to drag him out of the church, with an intention (as they afterwards declared themſelves) to carry him in bonds to the king; or, if they could not do that, to kill him in a leſs ſacred place: but he clinging faſt to one of the pillars of the choir, they could not force him from thence. During the ſtruggle he ſhook William de Tracey ſo roughly that he almoſt threw him down; and as Reginald Fitzurſe preſt harder upon him than any of the others, he thruſt him away, and called him *pimp*. This opprobrious language more enraged that violent man; he lifted up his ſword againſt the head of Becket, who then bowing his neck, and joining his hands together, in a poſture of prayer, recommended his own ſoul, and the cauſe of the church, to God, and to the ſaints of that cathedral. But one of the monks of Canterbury interpoſing his arm to ward off the blow, it was almoſt cut off; and the archbiſhop alſo was wounded in the crown of his head. He ſtood a ſecond ſtroke, which likewiſe fell on his head, in the ſame devout poſture, without a motion, word, or groan: but, after receiving a third, he fell proſtrate on his face; and all the accomplices preſſing now to a ſhare in the murder, a piece of his ſkull was ſtruck off by Richard Brito. Laſtly, Hugh the ſubdeacon, who had joined himſelf to them at Canterbury, ſcooped out the brains of the dead archbiſhop with the point of a ſword, and

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ſcattered them over the pavement.

Thus in the fifty-third year of his age, was aſſaſſinated Thomas Becket; a man of great talents, of elevated thoughts, and of invincible courage; but of a moſt violent and turbulent ſpirit; exceſſively paſſionate, haughty, and vain-glorious; in his reſolutions inflexible, in his reſentments implacable. It cannot be denied that he was guilty of a wilful and premeditated perjury: that he oppoſed the neceſſary courſe of public juſtice, and acted in defiance of the laws of his country; laws which he had moſt ſolemnly acknowledged and confirmed: nor is it leſs evident, that, during the heat of this diſpute, he was in the higheſt degree ungrateful to a very kind maſter, whoſe confidence in him had been boundleſs, and who from a private condition had advanced him to be the ſecond man in his kingdom. On what motives he acted can be certainly judged of by him alone, *to whom all hearts are open.* He might be miſled by the prejudices of a bigotted age, and think he was doing an acceptable ſervice to God, in contending, even to death, for the utmoſt exceſs of eccleſiaſtical and papal authority. Yet the ſtrength of his underſtanding, his converſation in courts and camps, among perſons whoſe notions were more free and enlarged, the different colour of his former life, and the ſuddenneſs of the change which ſeemed to be wrought in him upon his election to Canterbury, would make one ſuſpect, as many did in the times wherein he lived, that he only became the champion of the church from an ambitious deſire of ſharing its power; a power more independant on the favour of the king, and therefore more agreeable to the haughtineſs of his mind, than that which he had enjoyed as a miniſter of the crown. And this ſuſpicion is encreaſed by the marks of cunning and falſeneſs, which are evidently ſeen in his conduct on ſome occaſions. Neither is it impoſſible, that, when firſt he aſſumed his new character, he might act the part of a zealot, merely or principally from motives of arrogance and ambition; yet, afterwards, being engaged, and inflamed by the conteſt, work himſelf up into a real enthuſiaſm. The continual praiſes of thoſe with whom he acted, the honours done him in his exile by all the clergy of France, and the vanity which appears ſo predominant in his mind, may have conduced to operate ſuch a change. He certainly ſhewed in the latter part of his life a ſpirit as fervent as the warmeſt enthuſiaſt's; ſuch a ſpirit indeed as conſtitutes *heroiſm*, when it exerts itſelf in a cauſe beneficial to mankind. Had he defended the eſtabliſhed laws of his country, and the fundamental rules of civil juſtice, with as much zeal and intrepidity as he oppoſed them, he would have deſerved to be ranked with thoſe great men, whoſe virtues make one eaſily forget the allay of ſome natural imperfections: but, unhappily, his good qualities were ſo miſapplied, that they became no leſs hurtful to the public weal of the kingdom, than the worſt of his vices.

Con-

Commentaries on the Laws of England. Books the first and second; in two volumes quarto. By William Blackstone, Esq; Vinerian Professor of Law, and Sollicitor-general to her Majesty. The second edition. Oxford: printed at the Clarendon press.

THE Royal Prophet, speaking of the divine law, says, that it was a light to the eyes of the understanding, which imparted wisdom to the most simple.

It were much to be wished, that what David thus said of the laws of God, could, almost with any allowance, be said of the laws of men; so that while the universal justice, and extensive principles, on which they were founded, should enlighten and enlarge the understanding of the wisest, their comprehensive clearness and perspicuity should give immediate information and knowledge to the most simple; and that mankind should fear to break them, from a consciousness of their apparent and undoubted equity, and a reverential sense of the benefits which they continually imparted. If even ordinary rulers, who are invested with an authority merely judicial and executive, pretend to claim some resemblance to the Deity, in the casual dispensation of law; it should certainly be the part of great legislators of nations, to endeavour to resemble him in the permanent establishment of it.

It is unfortunate, that few human bodies of law, if any, can be said to possess perspicuity, together with a strict regard to universal justice. Those in which the *salus populi* is, as it ought always to be, principally consulted; are often exceedingly dark, doubtful, and intricate; whilst those, on the other hand, in which any degree of clearness is to be found, owe it chiefly to the will of the sovereign being preposterously adopted, as a measure of a subject's right.

Of these two evils want of perspicuity, and want of a strict regard to universal justice; the former must be allowed to be the most tolerable, as it may be conquered by an extraordinary degree of application in some of the members of the community, while the affluence consequent on security and created by it, will furnish others with the means, occasionally to purchase their knowledge and advice. The latter evil nothing can compensate for, except the temporary hope of an extraordinary degree of wisdom and goodness in the sovereign; endowments little to be expected and seldom to be found in men, liable from their cradles to imbibe the poison of flattery, and the intoxication of power.

It must not however be dissembled, but that in the former case, the necessity of such a tedious and tiresome application, by one part of the members of the community, to acquire a knowledge of the laws of their country, and the consequent loss of time and money, which the others must be at to pay for the fruits of their labours, which in fact, is to purchase the protection of those laws, are too apt to weaken, and in time totally to wear out of mens minds, that affection and reverential awe, which we ought to bear towards the laws of our country. This habitual affection and awe is infinitely prefer-

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able to the multiplicity of penal ſanctions, which are the reproach of moſt ſyſtems of laws.

In this ſituation of things, we muſt owe no trivial obligation to any gentleman of abilities equal to the taſk, who will take the pains to remove any part of the obſcurity in which our ſyſtem of laws is involved, and thereby contribute to render the whole more intelligible. It will increaſe this obligation if we reflect, that the law has been long looked on, as the moſt diſagreeable of all ſtudies; and of ſo dry, diſguſting, heavy a nature, that ſtudents of vivacity and genius were deterred from entering upon it, and thoſe of a quite contrary caſt were looked upon as the fitteſt to encounter the great difficulties which attended a ſcience, which, however excellent in its principles, lay in ſuch a ſtate of rudeneſs and diſorder.

Theſe obligations we owe to Mr. Blackſtone, who has entirely cleared the law of England from the rubbiſh in which it was buried; and now ſhews it to the public, in a clear, conciſe, and intelligible form. This maſterly writer has not confined himſelf to diſcharge the taſk of a mere juriſconſult; he takes a wider range, and unites the hiſtorian and politician with the lawyer. He traces the firſt eſtabliſhment of our laws, developes the principles on which they are grounded, examines their propriety and efficacy, and ſometimes points out wherein they may he altered for the better.

It is not to be denied, but that many law-writers have before wrote treatiſes, which were very much to the purpoſe; their inſtitutes, their digeſts, their abridgements, and their dictionaries, have all their uſe. But Mr. Blackſtone is the firſt who has treated the law of England as a liberal ſcience. His commentaries, beſides affording equal inſtruction, are infinitely better calculated to render that inſtruction agreeable. His book may vie with the purity and elegance of the writers of the Roman law in its beſt age. They are not, therefore, the ſubjects of England only, or thoſe that underſtand our language, that are likely to be benefitted by this work. It will probably be tranſlated into others of the European languages; and become a diffuſive benefit, by bringing other nations acquainted with the advantages of a free conſtitution.

Mr. Blackſtone acquaints us in his preface, that he gave private lectures on the laws of England in the univerſity of Oxford, before Mr. Viner had left funds to eſtabliſh public ones; a circumſtance greatly to his honour, as ſo able a lawyer could not fail of employing his talents to much greater advantage at the bar. Upon the death of Mr. Viner, the univerſity elected him firſt Vinerian profeſſor; and as this election was an honour to the univerſity; ſo it was a happineſs to the memory of Mr. Viner, that they had ſuch a man to elect.

Mr. Blackſtone introduces what he more immediately calls his commentaries or lectures, with four ſections. The firſt is on the ſtudy of the law, in which after mentioning many motives of a private nature, for its being made more or leſs part of almoſt every man's education, he very judiciouſly

ouſly points out one of a more public conſideration. After remarking, that all gentlemen of fortune are in conſequence of their property, liable to be called upon to eſtabliſh the rights, to eſtimate the injuries, to weigh the accuſations, and ſometimes to diſpoſe of the lives of their fellow-ſubjects, by ſerving upon juries: That in this ſituation they have frequently a right to decide, and that upon their oath, queſtions of nice importance, in the ſolution of which ſome legal ſkill is requiſite; eſpecially where the law and the fact, as it often happens, are intimately blended together; he pertinently adds: "And the general incapacity, even of our beſt juries, to do this with any tolerable propriety, has greatly debaſed their authority; and has undoubtedly thrown more power into the hands of judges, to direct, controul, and even reverſe their verdicts, than perhaps the conſtitution intended." This ſection concludes with a curious hiſtory of the many ſtruggles, between our and the Roman (commonly called by way of excellence, the civil) law, and the great victory lately gained by the former, by its being put, in conſequence of Mr. Viner's will, upon an equal footing with the latter in one of our univerſities.

The ſecond ſection of the introduction, is on the nature of laws in general. In this ſection, the Britiſh conſtitution is proved to be the beſt for the bulk of the people; not only in ſpite, but rather in conſequence, of the ſhare of monarchical power reſiding in the prince, and of ariſtocratical lodged in the nobles.

The third ſection is on the laws of England in general; and the fourth treats of the countries ſubject to thoſe laws.

What Mr. Blackſtone ſeems more properly to conſider as his commentaries, is divided into two books; the firſt concerning the rights or duties of perſons; the ſecond concerning the rights of things, or thoſe rights which a man may acquire, in and to ſuch external things, as are unconnected with his perſon.

The firſt book treats, in as many different chapters, of the following ſubjects. Of the abſolute rights of individuals; the parliament; the king and his title; the king's royal family; the councils belonging to the king; the king's duties; the king's prerogative; the king's revenue;—ſubordinate magiſtrates; the people, whether aliens, denizens, or natives; the clergy; the civil ſtate; the military and maritime ſtates; maſters and ſervants; huſband and wife; parent and child; guardian and ward; corporations.

The ſecond book treats, in ſo many different chapters likewiſe, of property in general; of real property; and firſt of corporeal hereditaments; of incorporeal hereditaments; of the feodal ſyſtems; of the ancient Engliſh tenures; of the modern Engliſh tenures; of freehold eſtates of inheritance; of freeholds not of inheritance; of eſtates leſs than freehold; of eſtates upon condition; of eſtates in poſſeſſion, remainder, and reverſion; of eſtates in ſeveralty, joint tenancy, coparcenary, and common; of the title to things real in general; of title by deſcent; of title by purchaſe; and firſt, by eſcheat; of title by occupancy;

pancy; of title by proſcription; of title by forfeiture; of title by alienation; of alienation by deed; of alienation by matter of record; of alienation by ſpecial cuſtom; of alienation by deviſe; of things perſonal; of property in things perſonal; of title to things perſonal, by occupancy; of title by prerogative, and forfeiture; of title by cuſtom; of title by ſucceſſion, marriage and judgment; of title by gift, grant, and contract; of title by bankruptcy; of teſtament, and adminiſtration,

Theſe diviſions will, we apprehend, be found to be what the author intended them, neither too large nor comprehenſive on the one hand, nor too trifling or minute on the other; both circumſtances equally productive of confuſion. It muſt be added, that no book perhaps was ever publiſhed, that brought down the matter of which it treated ſo near the time of publication, without the aſſiſtance of notes, as this does.

It now remains that we give ſome ſpecimens of the work. The judicious and elegant account he gives of the nature and origin of property, is ſo curious, that we need make no apology for inſerting it at length.

"There is nothing which ſo generally ſtrikes the imagination, and engages the affections of mankind, as the right of property; or that ſole and deſpotic dominion which one man claims and exerciſes over the external things of the world, in total excluſion of the right of any other individual in the univerſe. And yet there are very few that will give themſelves the trouble to conſider the original and foundation of this right. Pleaſed as we are with the poſſeſſion, we ſeem afraid to look back to the means by which it was acquired, as if fearful of ſome defect in our title; or at beſt we reſt ſatisfied with the deciſion of the laws in our favour, without examining the reaſon or authority upon which thoſe laws have been built. We think it enough that our title is derived by the grant of the former proprietor, by deſcent from our anceſtors, or by the laſt will and teſtament of the dying owner; not caring to reflect that (accurately and ſtrictly ſpeaking) there is no foundation in nature or in natural law, why a ſet of words upon parchment ſhould convey the dominion of land; why the ſon ſhould have a right to exclude his fellow-creatures from a determinate ſpot of ground, becauſe his father had done ſo before him; or why the occupier of a particular field or of a jewel, when lying on his death-bed and no longer able to maintain poſſeſſion, ſhould be entitled to tell the reſt of the world which of them ſhould enjoy it after him. Theſe enquiries, it muſt be owned, would be uſeleſs and even troubleſome in common life. It is well if the maſs of mankind will obey the laws when made, without ſcrutinizing too nicely into the reaſons of making them. But when law is to be conſidered not only as matter of practice, but alſo as a rational ſcience, it cannot be improper or uſeleſs to examine more deeply the rudiments and grounds of theſe poſitive conſtitutions of ſociety.

In the beginning of the world, we are informed by holy writ, the all bountiful Creator gave to man "dominion over all the earth; and "over the fiſh of the ſea, and

" over the fowl of the air, and " over every living thing that " moveth upon the earth." This is the only true and ſolid foundation of man's dominion over external things, whatever airy metaphyſical notions may have been ſtarted by fanciful writers upon this ſubject. The earth therefore, and all things therein, are the general property of all mankind, excluſive of other beings, from the immediate gift of the creator. And, while the earth continued bare of inhabitants, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all was in common among them, and that every one took from the public ſtock to his own uſe ſuch things as his immediate neceſſities required.

Theſe general notions of property were then ſufficient to anſwer all the purpoſes of human life; and might perhaps ſtill have anſwered them, had it been poſſible for mankind to have remained in a ſtate of primæval ſimplicity: as may be collected from the manners of many American nations when firſt diſcovered by the Europeans; and from the ancient method of living among the firſt Europeans themſelves, if we may credit either the memorials of them preſerved in the golden age of the poets, or the uniform accounts given by hiſtorians of thoſe times, wherein " *erant omnia communia et indiviſa* " *omnibus, veluti unum cunctis pa-* " *trimonium eſſet.*" Not that this communion of goods ſeems ever to have been applicable, even in the earlieſt ages, to ought but the *ſubſtance* of the thing; nor could be extended to the *uſe* of it. For, by the law of nature and reaſon, he who firſt began to uſe it, acquired therein a kind of tranſient property, that laſted ſo long as he was uſing it, and no longer; or, to ſpeak with greater preciſion, the *right* of poſſeſſion continued for the ſame time only that the *act* of poſſeſſion laſted. Thus the ground was in common, and no part of it was the permanent property of any man in particular: yet whoever was in the occupation of any determinate ſpot of it, for reſt, for ſhade, or the like, acquired for the time a ſort of ownerſhip, from which it would have been unjuſt, and contrary to the law of nature, to have driven him by force; but the inſtant that he quitted the uſe or occupation of it, another might ſeiſe it without injuſtice. Thus alſo a vine or other tree might be ſaid to be in common, as all men were equally entitled to its produce; and yet any private individual might gain the ſole property of the fruit, which he had gathered for his own repaſt. A doctrine well illuſtrated by Cicero, who compares the world to a great theatre, which is common to the public, and yet the place which any man has taken is for the time his own.

But when mankind increaſed in number, craft, and ambition, it became neceſſary to entertain conceptions of more permanent dominion; and to appropriate to individuals not the immediate *uſe* only, but the very *ſubſtance* of the thing to be uſed. Otherwiſe innumerable tumults muſt have ariſen, and the good order of the world been continually broken and diſturbed, while a variety of perſons were ſtriving who ſhould get the firſt occupation of the ſame thing.

thing, or diſputing which of them had actually gained it. As human life alſo grew more and more refined, abundance of conveniences were deviſed to render it more eaſy, commodious, and agreeable; as, habitations for ſhelter and ſafety, and raiment for warmth and decency. But no man would be at the trouble to provide either, ſo long as he had only an uſufructuary property in them, which was to ceaſe the inſtant that he quitted poſſeſſion;—if, as ſoon as he walked out of his tent, or pulled off his garment, the next ſtranger who came by would have a right to inhabit the one, and to wear the other. In the caſe of habitations in particular, it was natural to obſerve, that even the brute creation, to whom every thing elſe was in common, maintained a kind of permanent property in their dwellings, eſpecially for the protection of their young; that the birds of the air had neſts, and the beaſts of the field had caverns, the invaſion of which they eſteemed a very flagrant injuſtice, and would ſacrifice their lives to preſerve them. Hence a property was ſoon eſtabliſhed in every man's houſe and home-ſtall; which ſeems to have been originally mere temporary huts or moveable cabins, ſuited to the deſign of Providence for more ſpeedily peopling the earth, and ſuited to the wandering life of their owners, before any extenſive property in the ſoil or ground was eſtabliſhed. And there can be no doubt, but that moveables of every kind became ſooner appropriated than the permanent ſubſtantial ſoil: partly becauſe they were more ſuſceptible of a long occupancy, which might be continued for months together without any ſenſible interruption, and at length by uſage ripen into an eſtabliſhed right: but principally becauſe few of them could be fit for uſe, till improved and meliorated by the bodily labour of the occupant: which bodily labour, beſtowed upon any ſubject which before lay in common to all men, is univerſally allowed to give the faireſt and moſt reaſonable title to an excluſive property therein.

The article of food was a more immediate call, and therefore a more early conſideration. Such, as were not contented with the ſpontaneous product of the earth, ſought for a more ſolid refreſhment in the fleſh of beaſts, which they obtained by hunting. But the frequent diſappointments, incident to that method of proviſion, induced them to gather together ſuch animals as were of a more tame and ſequacious nature; and to eſtabliſh a permanent property in their flocks and herds, in order to ſuſtain themſelves in a leſs precarious manner, partly by the milk of the dams, and partly by the fleſh of the young. The ſupport of theſe their cattle made the article of *water* alſo a very important point. And therefore the book of Geneſis (the moſt venerable monument of antiquity, conſidered merely with a view to hiſtory) will furniſh us with frequent inſtances of violent contentions concerning wells; the excluſive property of which appears to have been eſtabliſhed in the firſt digger or occupant, even in ſuch places where the ground and herbage remained yet in common. Thus

we find Abraham, who was but a ſojourner, aſſerting his right to a well in the country of Abimelech, and exacting an oath for his ſecurity, "becauſe he had digged "that well." And Iſaac, about ninety years afterwards, reclaimed this his father's property; and, after much contention with the Philiſtines, was ſuffered to enjoy it in peace.

All this while the ſoil and paſture of the earth remained ſtill in common as before, and open to every occupant: except perhaps in the neighbourhood of towns, where the neceſſity of a ſole and excluſive property in lands (for the ſake of agriculture) was earlier felt, and therefore more readily complied with. Otherwiſe, when the multitude of men and cattle had conſumed every convenience on one ſpot of ground, it was deemed a natural right to ſeize upon and occupy ſuch other lands as would more eaſily ſupply their neceſſities. This practice is ſtill retained among the wild and uncultivated nations that have never been formed into civil ſtates, like the Tartars and others in the eaſt; where the climate itſelf, and the boundleſs extent of their territory, conſpire to retain them ſtill in the ſame ſavage ſtate of vagrant liberty, which was univerſal in the earlieſt ages; and which Tacitus informs us continued among the Germans till the decline of the Roman empire. We have alſo a ſtriking example of the ſame kind in the hiſtory of Abraham and his nephew Lot. When their joint ſubſtance became ſo great, that paſture and other conveniencies grew ſcarce, the natural conſequence was that a ſtrife aroſe between their ſervants; ſo that it was no longer practicable to dwell together. This contention Abraham thus endeavoured to compoſe: "let there be no ſtrife, I pray "thee, between thee and me. Is "not the whole land before thee? "Separate thyſelf, I pray thee, "from me. If thou wilt take "the left hand, then I will go to "the right; or if thou depart to "the right hand, then I will go "to the left." This plainly implies an acknowledged right, in either, to occupy whatever ground he pleaſed, that was not pre occupied by other tribes. "And Lot "lifted up his eyes, and beheld "all the plain of Jordan, that it "was well watered every where, "even as the garden of the Lord. "Then Lot choſe him all the "plain of Jordan, and journeyed eaſt; and Abraham dwelt "in the land of Canaan."

Upon the ſame principle was founded the right of migration, or ſending colonies to find out new habitations, when the mother-country was overcharged with inhabitants; which was practiſed as well by the Phenicians and Greeks, as the Germans, Scythians, and other northern people. And, ſo long as it was confined to the ſtocking and cultivation of deſert uninhabited countries, it kept ſtrictly within the limits of the law of nature. But how far the ſeiſing on countries already peopled, and driving out or maſſacring the innocent and defenceleſs natives, merely becauſe they differed from their invaders in language, in religion, in cuſtoms, in government, or in colour;

lour; how far ſuch conduct was conſonant to nature, to reaſon, or to chriſtianity, deſerved well to be conſidered by thoſe, who have rendered their names immortal by thus civilizing mankind.

As the world by degrees grew more populous, it daily became more difficult to find out new ſpots to inhabit, without encroaching upon former occupants; and, by conſtantly occupying the ſame individual ſpot, the fruits of the earth were conſumed, and its ſpontaneous produce deſtroyed, without any proviſion for a future ſupply or ſucceſſion. It therefore became neceſſary to purſue ſome regular method of providing a conſtant ſubſiſtence; and this neceſſity produced, or at leaſt promoted and encouraged, the art of agriculture. And the art of agriculture, by a regular connection and conſequence, introduced and eſtabliſhed the idea of a more permanent property in the ſoil, than had hitherto been received and adopted. It was clear that the earth would not produce her fruits in ſufficient quantities, without the aſſiſtance of tillage: but who would be at the pains of tilling it, if another might watch an opportunity to ſeize upon and enjoy the product of his induſtry, art, and labour? had not therefore a ſeparate property in lands, as well as moveables, been veſted in ſome individuals, the world muſt have continued a foreſt, and men have been mere animals of prey; which, according to ſome philoſophers, is the genuine ſtate of nature. Whereas now (ſo graciouſly has Providence interwoven our duty and our happineſs together) the reſult of this very neceſſity has been the ennobling of the human ſpecies, by giving it opportunities of improving its *rational* faculties, as well as of exerting its *natural*. Neceſſity begat property; and, in order to inſure that property, recourſe was had to civil ſociety, which brought along with it a long train of inſeparable concomitants; ſtates, government, laws, puniſhments, and the public exerciſe of religious duties. Thus connected together, it was found that a part only of ſociety was ſufficient to provide, by their manual labour, for the neceſſary ſubſiſtence of all; and leiſure was given to others to cultivate the human mind, to invent uſeful arts, and to lay the foundations of ſcience.

The only queſtion remaining is, how this property became actually veſted; or what it is that gave a man an excluſive right to retain in a permanent manner that ſpecific land, which before belonged generally to every body, but particularly to nobody. And, as we before obſerved that occupancy gave the right to the temporary *uſe* of the ſoil, ſo it is agreed upon all hands that occupancy gave alſo the original right to the permanent property in the *ſubſtance* of the earth itſelf; which excludes every one elſe but the owner from the uſe of it. There is indeed ſome difference among the writers on natural law, concerning the reaſon why occupancy ſhould convey this right, and inveſt one with this abſolute property: Grotius and Puffendorff inſiſting, that this right of occupancy is founded upon a tacit and implied aſſent of all mankind, that the firſt occupant ſhould become the owner; and Barbeyrac, Titius, Mr. Locke,

and others, holding, that there is no such implied aſſent, neither is it neceſſary that there ſhould be; for that the very act of occupancy, alone, being a degree of bodily labour, is from a principle of natural juſtice, without any conſent or compact, ſufficient of itſelf to gain a title. A diſpute that ſavours too much of nice and ſcholaſtic refinement! However, both ſides agree in this, that occupancy is the thing by which the title was in fact originally gained; every man ſeizing, to his own continued uſe, ſuch ſpots of ground as he found moſt agreeable to his own convenience, provided he found them unoccupied by any one elſe.

Property, both in lands and moveables, being thus originally acquired by the firſt taker, which taking amounts to a declaration that he intends to appropriate the thing to his own uſe, it remains in him, by the principles of univerſal law, till ſuch time as he does ſome other act which ſhews an intention to abandon it: for then it becomes, naturally ſpeaking, *publici juris* once more, and is liable to be again appropriated by the next occupant. So if one is poſſeſſed of a jewel, and caſts it into the ſea, or a public highway, this is ſuch an expreſs dereliction, that a property will be veſted in the firſt fortunate finder that will ſeize it to his own uſe. But if he hides it privately in the earth, or other ſecret place, and it is diſcovered, the finder acquires no property therein; for the owner hath not by this act declared any intention to abandon it, but rather the contrary: and if he loſes or drops it by accident, it cannot be collected from thence, that he deſigned to quit the poſſeſſion; and therefore in ſuch caſe the property ſtill remains in the loſer, who may claim it again of the finder. And this, we may remember, is the doctrine of the law of England, with relation to treaſure trove.

But this method, of one man's abandoning his property, and another's ſeizing the vacant poſſeſſion, however well founded in theory, could not long ſubſiſt in fact. It was calculated merely for the rudiments of civil ſociety, and neceſſarily ceaſed among the complicated intereſts and artificial refinements of polite and eſtabliſhed governments. In theſe it was found, that what became inconvenient or uſeleſs to one man, was highly convenient and uſeful to another; who was ready to give in exchange for it ſome equivalent, that was equally deſirable to the former proprietor. Thus mutual convenience introduced commercial traffic, and the reciprocal transfer of property by ſale, grant, or conveyance: which may be conſidered either as a continuance of the original poſſeſſion which the firſt occupant had; or as an abandoning of the thing by the preſent owner, and an immediate ſucceſſive occupancy of the ſame by the new proprietor. The voluntary dereliction of the owner, and delivering the poſſeſſion to another individual, amount to a transfer of the property; the proprietor declaring his intention no longer to occupy the thing himſelf, but that his own right of occupancy ſhould be veſted in the new acquirer. Or, taken in the other

light,

light, if I agree to part with an acre of my land to Titius, the deed of conveyance is an evidence of my having abandoned the property, and Titius, being the only or firſt man acquainted with ſuch my intention, immediately ſteps in and ſeizes the vacant poſſeſſion: thus the conſent expreſſed by the conveyance gives Titius a good right againſt me; and poſſeſſion, or occupancy, confirms that right againſt all the world beſides.

The moſt univerſal and effectual way, of abandoning property, is by the death of the occupant: when, both the actual poſſeſſion and intention of keeping poſſeſſion ceaſing, the property, which is founded upon ſuch poſſeſſion and intention, ought alſo to ceaſe of courſe. For, naturally ſpeaking, the inſtant a man ceaſes to be, he ceaſes to have any dominion: elſe, if he had a right to diſpoſe of his acquiſitions one moment beyond his life, he would alſo have a right to direct their diſpoſal for a million of ages after him; which would be highly abſurd and inconvenient. All property muſt therefore ceaſe upon death, conſidering men as abſolute individuals, and unconnected with civil ſociety: for then, by the principles before eſtabliſhed, the next immediate occupant would acquire a right in all that the deceaſed poſſeſſed. But as, under civilized governments, which are calculated for the peace of mankind, ſuch a conſtitution would be productive of endleſs diſturbances, the univerſal law of almoſt every nation (which is a kind of ſecondary law of nature) has either given the dying perſon a power of continuing his property, by diſpoſing of his poſſeſſions by will; or, in caſe he neglects to diſpoſe of it, or is not permitted to make any diſpoſition at all, the municipal law of the country then ſteps in, and declares who ſhall be the ſucceſſor, repreſentative, or heir of the deceaſed; that is, who alone ſhall have a right to enter upon this vacant poſſeſſion, in order to avoid that confuſion, which its becoming again common would occaſion. And farther, in caſe no teſtament be permitted by the law, or none be made, and no heir can be found ſo qualified as the law requires, ſtill, to prevent the robuſt title of occupancy from again taking place, the doctrine of eſcheats is adopted in almoſt every country; whereby the ſovereign of the ſtate, and thoſe who claim under his authority, are the ultimate heirs, and ſucceed to thoſe inheritances, to which no other title can be formed.

The right of inheritance, or deſcent to the children and relations of the deceaſed, ſeems to have been allowed much earlier than the right of deviſing by teſtament. We are apt to conceive at firſt view that it has nature on its ſide; yet we often miſtake for nature what we find eſtabliſhed by long and inveterate cuſtom. It is certainly a wiſe and effectual, but clearly a political, eſtabliſhment; ſince the permament right of property, veſted in the anceſtor himſelf, was no *natural*, but merely a *civil*, right. It is true, that the tranſmiſſion of one's poſſeſſions to poſterity has an evident tendency to make a man a good citizen and a uſeful member of

ſociety: it ſets the paſſions on the ſide of duty, and prompts a man to deſerve well of the public, when he is ſure that the reward of his ſervices will not die with himſelf, but be tranſmitted to thoſe with whom he is connected by the deareſt and moſt tender affections. Yet, reaſonable as this foundation of the right of inheritance may ſeem, it is probable that its immediate original aroſe not from ſpeculations altogether ſo delicate and refined; and, if not from fortuitous circumſtances, at leaſt from a plainer and more ſimple principle. A man's children or neareſt relations are uſually about him on his death-bed, and are the earlieſt witneſſes of his deceaſe. They became therefore generally the next immediate occupants, till at length in proceſs of time this frequent uſage ripened into general law. And therefore alſo in the earlieſt ages, on failure of children, a man's ſervants born under his roof were allowed to be his heirs; being immediately on the ſpot when he died. For we find the old patriarch Abraham expreſsly declaring, that "ſince God had "given him no ſeed, his ſteward "Eliezer, one born in his houſe, "was his heir."

While property continued only for life, teſtaments were uſeleſs and unknown; and, when it became inheritable, the inheritance was long indefeaſible, and the children or heirs at law were incapable of excluſion by will. Till at length it was found, that ſo ſtrict a rule of inheritance made heirs diſobedient and headſtrong, defrauded creditors of their juſt debts, and prevented many provident fathers from dividing or charging their eſtates as the exigence of their families required. This introduced pretty generally the right of diſpoſing one's property, or a part of it, by *teſtament*; that is, by written or oral inſtructions properly *witneſſed* and authenticated, according to the *pleaſure* of the deceaſed; which we therefore emphatically ſtile his *will*. This was eſtabliſhed in ſome countries much later than in others. With us in England, till modern times, a man could only diſpoſe of one third of his moveables from his wife and children: and in general, no will was permitted of lands till the reign of Henry the eighth; and then only of a certain portion: for it was not till after the reſtoration that the power of deviſing real property became ſo univerſal as at preſent.

Wills therefore and teſtaments, rights of inheritance and ſucceſſions, are all of them creatures of the civil or municipal laws, and accordingly are in all reſpects regulated by them; every diſtinct country having different ceremonies and requiſites to make a teſtament completely valid: neither does any thing vary more than the right of inheritance under different national eſtabliſhments. In England particularly, this diverſity is carried to ſuch a length, as if it had been meant to point out the power of the laws in regulating the ſucceſſion to property, and how futile every claim muſt be that has not its foundation in the poſitive rules of the ſtate. In perſonal eſtates the father may ſucceed to his children; in landed pro-

property he never can be their immediate heir, by any the remoteſt poſſibility: in general only the eldeſt ſon, in ſome places only the youngeſt, in others all the ſons together, have a right to ſucceed to the inheritance: in real eſtates males are preferred to females, and the eldeſt male will uſually exclude the reſt; in the diviſion of perſonal eſtates, the females of equal degree are admitted together with the males, and no right of primogeniture is allowed.

This one conſideration may help to remove the ſcruples of many well-meaning perſons, who ſet up a miſtaken conſcience in oppoſition to the rules of law. If a man diſinherits his ſon, by a will duly executed, and leaves his eſtate to a ſtranger, there are many who conſider this proceeding as contrary to natural juſtice: while others ſo ſcrupulouſly adhere to the ſuppoſed intention of the dead, that if a will of lands be atteſted by only *two* witneſſes inſtead of *three*, which the law requires, they are apt to imagine that the heir is bound in conſcience to relinquiſh his title to the deviſee. But both of them certainly proceed upon very erroneous principles: as if, on the one hand, the ſon had by nature a right to ſucceed to his father's lands; or as if, on the other hand, the owner was by nature intitled to direct the ſucceſſion of his property after his own deceaſe. Whereas the law of nature ſuggeſts, that on the death of the poſſeſſor the eſtate ſhould again become common, and be open to the next occupant, unleſs otherwiſe ordered for the ſake of civil peace by the poſitive law of ſociety. The poſitive law of ſociety, which is with us the municipal law of England, directs it to veſt in ſuch perſon as the laſt proprietor ſhall by will, attended with certain requiſites, appoint; and, in defect of ſuch appointment, to go to ſome particular perſon, who, from the reſult of certain local conſtitutions, appears to be the heir at law. Hence it follows, that, where the appointment is regularly made, there cannot be a ſhadow of right in any one but the perſon appointed; and, where the neceſſary requiſites are omitted, the right of the heir is equally ſtrong, and built upon as ſolid a foundation, as the right of the deviſee would have been, ſuppoſing ſuch requiſites were obſerved.

But, after all, there are ſome few things, which, notwithſtanding the general introduction and continuance of property, muſt ſtill unavoidably remain in common; being ſuch wherein nothing but an uſufructuary property is capable of being had; and therefore they ſtill belong to the firſt occupant, during the time he holds poſſeſſion of them, and no longer. Such (among others) are the elements of light, air, and water; which a man may occupy by means of his windows, his gardens, his mills, and other conveniencies: ſuch alſo are the generality of thoſe animals which are ſaid to be *feræ naturæ*, or of a wild and untameable diſpoſition; which any man may ſeiſe upon and keep for his own uſe or pleaſure. All theſe things, ſo long as they remain in poſſeſſion, every man has a right to enjoy

enjoy without disturbance; but if once they escape from his custody, or he voluntarily abandons the use of them, they return to the common stock, and any man else has an equal right to seise and enjoy them afterwards.

Again; there are other things, in which a permanent property *may* subsist, not only as to the temporary use, but also the solid substance: and which yet would be frequently found without a proprietor, had not the wisdom of the law provided a remedy to obviate this inconvenience. Such are forests and other waste grounds, which were omitted to be appropriated in the general distribution of lands: such also are wrecks, estrays, and that species of wild animals, which the arbitrary constitutions of positive law have distinguished from the rest by the well-known appellation of game. With regard to these and some others, as disturbances and quarrels would frequently arise among individuals, contending about the acquisition of this species of property by first occupancy, the law has therefore wisely cut up the root of dissension, by vesting the things themselves in the sovereign of the state; or else in his representatives, appointed and authorized by him, being usually the lords of manors. And thus the legislature of England has universally promoted the grand ends of civil society, the peace and security of individuals, by steadily pursuing that wise and orderly maxim, of assigning to every thing capable of ownership a legal and determinate owner."

We shall conclude with the account which our learned writer gives of the Feodal System; which, though a subject often handled, appears new in his hands.

"It is impossible to understand, with any degree of accuracy, either the civil constitution of this kingdom, or the laws which regulate its landed property, without some general acquaintance with the nature and doctrine of feuds, or the feodal law; a system so universally received throughout Europe, upwards of twelve centuries ago, that Sir Henry Spelman does not scruple to call it the law of nations in our western world. This chapter will be therefore dedicated to this enquiry. And though in the course of our observations in this and many other parts of the present book, we may have occasion to search pretty highly into the antiquities of our English jurisprudence, yet surely no industrious student will imagine his time mis-employed, when he is led to consider that the obsolete doctrines of our laws are frequently the foundation, upon which what remains is erected; and that it is impracticable to comprehend many rules of the modern law, in a scholar-like scientifical manner, without having recourse to the antient. Nor will these researches be altogether void of rational entertainment as well as use: as in viewing the majestic ruins of Rome or Athens, of Balbec or Palmyra, it administers both pleasure and instruction to compare them with the draughts of the same edifices, in their pristine proportion and splendor.

The constitution of feuds had its original from the military policy of the northern or Celtic nations, the Goths, the Hunns, the Franks,

Franks, the Vandals, and the Lombards, who all migrating from the ſame *officina gentium*, as Craig very juſtly entitles it, poured themſelves in vaſt quantities into all the regions of Europe, at the declenſion of the Roman empire. It was brought by them from their own countries, and continued in their reſpective colonies as the moſt likely means to ſecure their new acquiſitions: and, to that end, large diſtricts or parcels of land were allotted by the conquering general to the ſuperior officers of the army, and by them dealt out again in ſmaller parcels or allotments to the inferior officers and moſt deſerving ſoldiers. Theſe allotments were called *feoda*, feuds, fiefs, or fees; which laſt appellation in the northern languages ſignifies a conditional ſtipend or reward. Rewards or ſtipends they evidently were; and the condition annexed to them was, that the poſſeſſor ſhould do ſervice faithfully, both at home and in the wars, to him by whom they were given; for which purpoſe he took the *juramentum fidelitatis*, or oath of fealty: and in caſe of the breach of this condition and oath, by not performing the ſtipulated ſervice, or by deſerting the lord in battle, the lands were again to revert to him who granted them.

Allotments thus acquired, naturally engaged ſuch as accepted them to defend them: and, as they all ſprang from the ſame right of conqueſt, no part could ſubſiſt independent of the whole; wherefore all givers as well as receivers were mutually bound to defend each others poſſeſſions. But, as that could not effectually be done in a tumultuous irregular way, government, and to that purpoſe ſubordination, was neceſſary. Every receiver of lands, or feudatory, was therefore bound, when called upon by his benefactor, or immediate lord of his feud or fee, to do all in his power to defend him. Such benefactor or lord was likewiſe ſubordinate to and under the command of his immediate benefactor or ſuperior; and ſo upwards to the prince or general himſelf. And the ſeveral lords were alſo reciprocally bound, in their reſpective gradations, to protect the poſſeſſions they had given. Thus the feodal connection was eſtabliſhed, a proper military ſubjection was naturally introduced, and an army of feudatories were always ready enliſted, and mutually prepared to muſter, not only in defence of each man's own ſeveral property, but alſo in defence of the whole, and of every part of this their newly acquired country: the prudence of which conſtitution was ſoon ſufficiently viſible in the ſtrength and ſpirit, with which they maintained their conqueſts.

The univerſality and early uſe of this feodal plan, among all thoſe nations which, in complaiſance to the Romans, we ſtill call barbarous, may appear from what is recorded of the Cimbri and Teutones, nations of the ſame northern original as thoſe whom we have been deſcribing, at their firſt irruption into Italy about a century before the chriſtian æra. They demanded of the Romans, "*ut martius populus aliquid ſibi* "*terræ daret, quaſi ſtipendium:* "*cæterum, ut vellet, manibus atque armis ſuis uteretur.*" The ſenſe of which may be thus rendered; they deſired ſtipendiary lands

lands (that is, feuds) to be allowed them, to be held by military and other perſonal ſervices, whenever their lords ſhould call upon them. This was evidently the ſame conſtitution, that diſplayed itſelf more fully about ſeven hundred years afterwards; when the Salii, Burgundians, and Franks, broke in upon Gaul, the Viſigoths on Spain, and the Lombards upon Italy, and introduced with themſelves this northern plan of polity, ſerving at once to diſtribute, and to protect, the territories they had newly gained. And from hence it is probable that the emperor Alexander Severus took the hint, of dividing lands conquered from the enemy among his generals and victorious ſoldiery, on condition of receiving military ſervice from them and their heirs for ever.

Scarce had theſe northern conquerors eſtabliſhed themſelves in their new dominions, when the wiſdom of their conſtitutions, as well as their perſonal valour, alarmed all the princes of Europe; that is, of thoſe countries which had formerly been Roman provinces, but had revolted, or were deſerted by their old maſters, in the general wreck of the empire. Wherefore moſt, if not all, of them thought it neceſſary to enter into the ſame or a ſimilar plan of policy. For whereas, before, the poſſeſſions of their ſubjects were perfectly *allodial*; (that is, wholly independent, and held of no ſuperior at all) now they parcelled out their royal territories, or perſuaded their ſubjects to ſurrender up and retake their own landed property, under the like feodal obligation of military fealty. And thus, in the compaſs of a very few years, the feodal conſtitution, or the doctrine of tenure, extended itſelf over all the weſtern world. Which alteration of landed property, in ſo very material a point, neceſſarily drew after it an alteration of laws and cuſtoms: ſo that the feodal laws ſoon drove out the Roman, which had hitherto univerſally obtained, but now became for many centuries loſt and forgotten; and Italy itſelf (as ſome of the civilians, with more ſpleen than judgment, have expreſſed it) *belluinas, atque ferinas, immaneſque Longobardorum leges accepit.*

But this feodal polity, which was thus by degrees eſtabliſhed over all the continent of Europe, ſeems not to have been received in this part of our iſland, at leaſt not univerſally and as a part of the national conſtitution, till the reign of William the Norman. Not but that it is reaſonable to believe, from abundant traces in our hiſtory and laws, that even in the times of the Saxons, who were a ſwarm from what Sir William Temple calls the ſame northern hive, ſomething ſimilar to this was in uſe: yet not ſo extenſively, nor attended with all the rigour that was afterwards imported by the Normans. For the Saxons were firmly ſettled in this iſland, at leaſt as early as the year 600; and it was not till two centuries after, that feuds arrived to their full vigour and maturity, even on the continent of Europe.

This introduction however of the feodal tenures into England by king William, does not ſeem to have been effected immediately after the conqueſt, nor by the mere arbitrary will and power of the conqueror; but to have been conſented to by the great council of the nation long after his

his title was eſtabliſhed. Indeed, from the prodigious ſlaughter of the Engliſh nobility at the battle of Haſtings, and the fruitleſs inſurrections of thoſe who ſurvived, ſuch numerous forfeitures had accrued, that he was able to reward his Norman followers with very large and extenſive poſſeſſions: which gave a handle to the monkiſh hiſtorians, and ſuch as have implicitly followed them, to repreſent him as having by right of the ſword ſeiſed on all the lands of England, and dealt them out again to his own favourites. A ſuppoſition, grounded upon a miſtaken ſenſe of the word *conqueſt*; which, in it's feodal acceptation, ſignifies no more than *acquiſition:* and this has led many haſty writers into a ſtrange hiſtorical miſtake, and one which upon the ſlighteſt examination will be found to be moſt untrue. However, certain it is, that the Normans now began to gain very large poſſeſſion in England: and their regard for the feodal law, under which they had long lived, together with the king's recommendation of this polity to the Engliſh, as the beſt way to put themſelves on a military footing, and thereby to prevent any future attempts from the continent, were probably the reaſons that prevailed to effect its eſtabliſhment here. And perhaps we may be able to aſcertain the time of this great revolution in our landed property with a tolerable degree of exactneſs. For we learn from the Saxon Chronicle, that in the nineteenth year of King William's reign an invaſion was apprehended from Denmark; and the military conſtitution of the Saxons being then laid aſide, and no other introduced in its ſtead, the kingdom was wholly defenceleſs: which occaſioned the king to bring over a large army of Normans and Bretons, who were quartered upon every landholder, and greatly oppreſſed the people. This apparent weakneſs, together with the grievances occaſioned by a foreign force, might co-operate with the king's remonſtrances, and the better incline the nobility to liſten to his propoſals for putting them in a poſture of defence. For, as ſoon as the danger was over, the king held a great council to inquire into the ſtate of the nation; the immediate conſequence of which was the compiling of the great ſurvey called domeſday book, which was finiſhed in the next year: and in the latter end of that very year the king was attended by all his nobility at Sarum; where all the principal landholders ſubmitted their lands to the yoke of military tenure, became the king's vaſſals, and did homage and fealty to his perſon. This ſeems to have been the æra of formally introducing the feodal tenures by law; and probably the very law, thus made at the council of Sarum, is that which is ſtill extant, and couched in theſe remarkable words: "*ſtatuimus, ut omnes liberi homines "foedere & ſacramento affirment, "quod intra & extra univerſum "regnum Angliae Wilhelmo regi "domino ſuo fideles eſſe volunt; "terras & honores illius omni fide-"litate ubique ſervare cum eo, & "contra inimicos & alienigenas de-"fendere.*" The terms of this law (as Sir Martin Wright has obſerved) are plainly feodal: for, firſt, it requires the oath of fealty, which made in the ſenſe of

of the feudiſts every man that took it a tenant or vaſſal; and, ſecondly, the tenants obliged themſelves to defend their lords territories and titles againſt all enemies foreign and domeſtic. But what puts the matter out of diſpute is another law of the ſame collection, which exacts the performance of the military feodal ſervices, as ordained by the general council. "*Omnes comites, & barones, & milites, & ſervientes, & univerſi liberi homines totius regni noſtri prædicti, habeant & teneant ſe ſemper bene in armis & in equis, ut decet & oportet: & ſint ſemper prompti & bene parati ad ſervitium ſuum integrum nobis explendum & peragendum cum opus fuerit; ſecundum quod nobis debent de feodis & tenementis ſuis de jure facere; & ſicut illis ſtatuimus per commune concilium totius regni noſtri prædicti.*"

This new polity therefore ſeems not to have been *impoſed* by the conqueror, but nationally and freely *adopted* by the general aſſembly of the whole realm, in the ſame manner as other nations of Europe had before adopted it, upon the ſame principle of ſelf-ſecurity. And, in particular, they had the recent example of the French nation before their eyes; which had gradually ſurrendered up all its allodial or free lands into the king's hands, who reſtored them to the owners as a *beneficium* or feud, to be held to them and ſuch of their heirs as they previouſly nominated to the king: and thus by degrees all the allodial eſtates of France were converted into feuds, and the freemen became the vaſſals of the crown. The only difference between this change of tenures in France, and that in England, was, that the former was effected gradually, by the conſent of private perſons; the latter was done at once, all over England, by the common conſent of the nation.

In conſequence of this change, it became a fundamental maxim and neceſſary principle (though in reality a mere fiction) of our Engliſh tenures, "that the king is "the univerſal lord and original "proprietor of all the lands in "his kingdom; and that no man "doth or can poſſeſs any part of "it, but what has mediately or "immediately been derived as a "gift from him, to be held upon "feodal ſervices." For, this being the real caſe in pure, original, proper feuds, other nations who adopted this ſyſtem were obliged to act upon the ſame ſuppoſition, as a ſubſtruction and foundation of their new polity, though the fact was indeed far otherwiſe. And indeed by thus conſenting to the introduction of feodal tenures, our Engliſh anceſtors probably meant no more than to put the kingdom in a ſtate of defence by eſtabliſhing a military ſyſtem; and to oblige themſelves (in reſpect of their lands) to maintain the king's title and territories, with equal vigour and fealty, *as if* they had received their lands from his bounty upon theſe expreſs conditions, as pure, proper, beneficiary feudatories. But, whatever their meaning was, the Norman interpreters, ſkilled in all the niceties of the feodal conſtitutions, and well underſtanding the import and extent of the feodal terms, gave a very different conſtruction to this proceeding; and thereupon took a handle to introduce not only the rigorous doctrines

doctrines which prevailed in the dutchy of Normandy, but alſo ſuch fruits and dependencies, ſuch hardſhips and ſervices, as were never known to other nations; as if the Engliſh had in fact, as well as theory, owed every thing they had to the bounty of their ſovereign lord.

Our anceſtors therefore, who were by no means beneficiaries, but had barely conſented to this fiction of tenure from the crown, as the baſis of a military diſcipline, with reaſon looked upon theſe deductions as grievous impoſitions, and arbitrary concluſions from principles that, as to them, had no foundation in truth. However, this king, and his ſon William Rufus, kept up with a high hand all the rigours of the feodal doctrines: but their ſucceſſor, Henry I. found it expedient, when he ſet up his pretenſions to the crown, to promiſe a reſtitution of the laws of King Edward the Confeſſor, or ancient Saxon ſyſtem: and accordingly, in the firſt year of his reign, granted a charter, whereby he gave up the greater grievances, but ſtill reſerved the fiction of feodal tenure, for the ſame military purpoſes which engaged his father to introduce it. But this charter was gradually broke through, and the former grievances were revived and aggravated, by himſelf and ſucceeding princes; till in the reign of king John they became ſo intolerable, that they occaſioned his barons, or principal feudatories, to riſe up in arms againſt him: which at length produced the famous great charter at Runningmead, which, with ſome alterations, was confirmed by his ſon Henry III. And, though its immunities (eſpecially as altered on its laſt edition by his ſon) are very greatly ſhort of thoſe granted by Henry I. it was juſtly eſteemed at the time a vaſt acquiſition to Engliſh liberty. Indeed, by the farther alteration of tenures that has ſince happened, many of theſe immunities may now appear, to a common obſerver, of much leſs conſequence than they really were when granted: but this, properly conſidered, will ſhew, not that the acquiſitions under John were ſmall, but that thoſe under Charles were greater. And from hence alſo ariſes another inference; that the liberties of Engliſhmen are not (as ſome arbitrary writers would repreſent them) mere infringements of the king's prerogative, extorted from our princes by taking advantage of their weakneſs; but a reſtoration of that ancient conſtitution, of which our anceſtors had been defrauded by the art and fineſſe of the Norman lawyers, rather than deprived by the force of the Norman arms.

Having given this ſhort hiſtory of their riſe and progreſs, we will next conſider the nature, doctrine, and principal laws of feuds; wherein we ſhall evidently trace the groundwork of many parts of our public polity, and alſo the original of ſuch of our own tenures, as were either aboliſhed in the laſt century, or ſtill remain in force.

The grand and fundamental maxim of all feodal tenure is this; that all lands were originally granted out by the ſovereign, and are therefore holden, either mediately or immediately, of the crown. The grantor was called the

the proprietor, or *lord*; being he who retained the dominion or ultimate property of the feud or fee: and the grantee, who had only the uſe and poſſeſſion, according to the terms of the grant, was ſtiled the feudatory or *vaſſal*, which was only another name for the tenant or holder of the lands; though, on account of the prejudices we have juſtly conceived againſt the doctrines that were afterwards grafted on this ſyſtem, we now uſe the word *vaſſal* opprobriouſly, as ſynonymous to ſlave or bondman. The manner of the grant was by words of gratuitous and pure donation, *dedi & conceſſi*; which are ſtill the operative words in our modern infeodations or deeds of feoffment. This was perfected by the ceremony of corporal inveſtiture, or open and notorious delivery of poſſeſſion in the preſence of the other vaſſals, which perpetuated among them the æra of the new acquiſition, at a time when the art of writing was very little known: and therefore the evidence of property was repoſed in the memory of the neighbourhood: who, in caſe of a diſputed title, were afterwards called upon to decide the difference, not only according to external proofs, adduced by the parties litigant, but alſo by the internal teſtimony of their own private knowledge.

Beſides an oath of *fealty*, or profeſſion of faith to the lord, which was the parent of our oath of allegiance, the vaſſal or tenant, upon inveſtiture, did uſually *homage* to his lord; openly and humbly kneeling, being ungirt, uncovered, and holding up his hands both together between thoſe of the lord, who ſat before him; and there profeſſing that "he did become "his *man*, from that day forth, "of life and limb and earthly ho"nour:" and then he received a kiſs from his lord. Which ceremony was denominated *homagium*, or *manhood*, by the feudiſts, from the ſtated form of words, *devenio veſter homo*.

When the tenant had thus profeſſed himſelf to be the man of his ſuperior or lord, the next conſideration was concerning the *ſervice*, which, as ſuch, he was bound to render, in recompenſe for the land he held. This, in pure, proper, and original feuds, was only twofold: to follow, or do *ſuit* to, the lord in his courts in time of peace; and in his armies or warlike retinue, when neceſſity called him to the field. The lord was, in early times, the legiſlator and judge over all his feudatories: and therefore the vaſſals of the inferior lords were bound by their fealty to attend their domeſtic courts baron, (which were inſtituted in every manor or barony, for doing ſpeedy and effectual juſtice to all the tenants) in order as well to anſwer ſuch complaints as might be alledged againſt themſelves, as to form a jury or homage for the trial of their fellow tenants; and upon this account, in all the feodal inſtitutions both here and on the continent, they are diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the peers of the court; *pares curtis*, or *pares curiæ*. In like manner the barons themſelves, or lords of inferior diſtricts, were denominated peers of the king's court, and were bound to attend him upon ſummons, to hear cauſes of greater conſequence in the king's preſence

fence and under the direction of his grand juſticiary; till in many countries the power of that officer was broken and diſtributed into other courts of judicature, the peers of the king's court ſtill reſerving to themſelves (in almoſt every feodal government) the right of appeal from thoſe ſubordinate courts in the laſt reſort. The military branch of ſervice conſiſted in attending the lord to the wars, if called upon, with ſuch a retinue, and for ſuch a number of days, as were ſtipulated at the firſt donation, in proportion to the quantity of the land.

At the firſt introduction of feuds as they were gratuitous, ſo alſo they were precarious and held at the *will* of the lord, who was the ſole judge whether his vaſſal performed his ſervices faithfully. Then they became certain, for one or more *years*. Among the ancient Germans they continued only from year to year; an annual diſtribution of lands being made by their leaders in their general councils or aſſemblies. This was profeſſedly done, leſt their thoughts ſhould be diverted from war to agriculture; leſt the ſtrong ſhould incroach upon the poſſeſſions of the weak; and leſt luxury and avarice ſhould be encouraged by the erection of permanent houſes, and too curious an attention to convenience and the elegant ſuperfluities of life. But, when the general migration was pretty well over, and a peaceable poſſeſſion of their new acquired ſettlements had introduced new cuſtoms and manners; when the fertility of the ſoil had encouraged the ſtudy of huſbandry, and an affection for the ſpots they had cultivated began naturally to ariſe in the tillers; a more permanent degree of property was introduced, and feuds began now to be granted for the *life* of the feudatory. But ſtill feuds were not yet *hereditary*; though frequently granted, by the favour of the lord, to the children of the former poſſeſſor; till in proceſs of time it became unuſual, and was therefore thought hard, to reject the heir, if he were capable to perform the ſervices: and therefore infants, women, and profeſſed monks, who were incapable of bearing arms, were alſo incapable of ſucceeding to a genuine feud. But the heir when admitted to the feud which his anceſtor poſſeſſed, uſed generally to pay a fine of acknowledgement to the lord, in horſes, arms, money, and the like, for ſuch renewal of the feud: which was called a relief, becauſe it re-eſtabliſhed the inheritance, or in the words of the feodal writers, "*incertam et* "*traducam hereditatem relevabat.*" This relief was afterwards, when feuds became abſolutely hereditary, continued on the death of the tenant, though the original foundation of it had ceaſed.

For in proceſs of time feuds came by degrees to be univerſally extended, beyond the life of the firſt vaſſal, to his *ſons*, or perhaps to ſuch one of them, as the lord ſhould name; and in this caſe, the form of the donation was ſtrictly obſerved: for if a feud was given to a man and his *ſons*, all his ſons ſucceeded him in equal portions; and as they died off, their ſhares reverted to the lord, and did not deſcend to their children, or even to their ſurviving bro-

thers, as not being ſpecified in the donation. But when ſuch a feud was given to a man, and his *heirs* in general terms, then a more extended rule of ſucceſſion took place; and when a feudatory died, his male deſcendants *in infinitum* were admitted to the ſucceſſion. When any ſuch deſcendant, who thus had ſucceeded, died, his male deſcendants were alſo admitted in the firſt place; and, in defect of them, ſuch of his male collateral kindred as were of the blood or lineage of the firſt feudatory, but no others. For this was an unalterable maxim in feodal ſucceſſion, that "none was "capable of inheriting a feud, but "ſuch as was of the blood of, "that is, lineally deſcended from, "the firſt feudatory." And the deſcent, being thus confined to males, originally extended to all the males alike; all the ſons, without any diſtinction of primogeniture, ſucceeding to equal portions of the father's feud. But this being found upon many accounts inconvenient, (particularly, by dividing the ſervices, and thereby weakening the ſtrength of the feodal union) and *honorary* feuds (or titles of nobility) being now introduced, which were not of a diviſible nature, but could only be inherited by the eldeſt ſon; in imitation of theſe, *military* feuds (or thoſe we are now deſcribing) began alſo in moſt countries to deſcend according to the ſame rule of primogeniture, to the eldeſt ſon, in excluſion of all the reſt.

Other qualities of feuds were, that the feudatory could not aliene or diſpoſe of his feud; neither could he exchange, nor yet mortgage, nor even deviſe it by will, without the conſent of the lord. For, the reaſon of conferring the feud being the perſonal abilities of the feudatory to ſerve in war, it was not fit he ſhould be at liberty to transfer this gift, either from himſelf, or his poſterity who were preſumed to inherit his valour, to others who might prove leſs able. And, as the feodal obligation was looked upon as reciprocal, the feudatory being entitled to the lord's protection, in return for his own fealty and ſervice; therefore the lord could no more transfer his ſeignory or protection without the conſent of his vaſſal, than the vaſſal could his feud without conſent of his lord: it being equally unreaſonable, that the lord ſhould extend his protection to a perſon to whom he had exceptions, and that the vaſſal ſhould owe ſubjection to a ſuperior not of his own chooſing.

Theſe were the principal, and very ſimple, qualities of the genuine or original feuds; being then all of a military nature, and in the hands of military perſons: though the feudatories being under frequent incapacities of cultivating and manuring their own lands, ſoon found it neceſſary to commit part of them to inferior tenants; obliging them to ſuch returns in ſervice, corn, cattle, or money, as might enable the chief feudatories to attend their military duties without diſtraction: which returns, or *reditus*, were the original of rents. And by this means the feodal polity was greatly extended; theſe inferior feudatories (who held what are called in the Scotch law "rere-"fiefs") being under ſimilar obligations of fealty, to do ſuit of court, to anſwer the ſtipulated renders or rent-

rent-ſervice, and to promote the welfare of the immediate ſuperiors or lords. But this at the ſame time demoliſhed the ancient ſimplicity of feuds; and an inroad being once made upon their conſtitution, it ſubjected them, in a courſe of time, to great varities and innovations. Feuds came to be bought and ſold, and deviations were made from the old fundamental rules of tenure and ſucceſſion; which were held no longer ſacred, when the feuds themſelves no longer continued to be purely military. Hence theſe tenures began now to be divided into *feoda propria et impropria*, proper and improper feuds; under the former of which diviſions were comprehended ſuch, and ſuch only, of which we have before ſpoken; and under that of improper or derivative feuds were comprized all ſuch as do not fall within the other deſcription; ſuch, for inſtance, as were originally bartered and ſold to the feudatory for a price; ſuch as were held upon baſe or leſs honourable ſervices, or upon a rent, in lieu of military ſervice; ſuch as were in themſelves alienable, without mutual licence; and ſuch as might deſcend indifferently either to males or females. But, where a difference was not expreſſed in the creation, ſuch new-created feuds did in all other reſpects follow the nature of an original, genuine, and proper feud.

But as ſoon as the feodal ſyſtem came to be conſidered in the light of a civil eſtabliſhment, rather than as a military plan, the ingenuity of the ſame ages, which perplexed all theology with the ſubtilty of ſcolaſtic diſquiſitions; and bewildered philoſophy in the mazes of metaphyſical jargon, began alſo to exert its influence on this copious and fruitful ſubject: in purſuance of which, the moſt refined and oppreſſive conſequences were drawn from what originally was a plan of ſimplicity and liberty, equally beneficial to both lord and tenant, and prudently calculated for their mutual protection and defence. From this one foundation, in different countries of Europe, very different ſuperſtructures have been raiſed: what effect it has produced on the landed property of England will appear in the following chapters.

An Eſſay on the Hiſtory of Civil Society. By Adam Ferguſon, L. S. D. Profeſſor of Moral Philoſophy in the Univerſity of Edinburgh. In one volume quarto.

IT concerns man ſo much to know himſelf well, and he is at the ſame time ſo various a being, that he cannot be exhibited to himſelf, by too many obſervers and in too many ſituations. There is not indeed any condition, whether of riches or poverty, figure or obſcurity, ſociety or ſolitarineſs, civilization or rudeneſs, in which ſomething uſeful may not be gleaned towards the improvement and exertion, we may even ſay the diſcovery of thoſe powers, with which nature has ſo liberally endowed him. Nor is there any obſerver, (and we are all obſervers of one another) from the ſedentary hermit, to the giddieſt of the multitude, who has not perhaps made ſome obſervation which was before unnoticed. The ſubject is ſo ex-

tenſive that it can never be exhauſted, and the recluſe himſelf may hit upon ſome peculiarity in the human frame, by an acquaintance with which the reſt of mankind may be greatly benefited.

Civil ſociety is now, whatever it might have been originally, the general ſtate of man; ſo that it is the moſt intereſting ſituation, that he can poſſibly be conſidered in. There is a peculiar propriety, in this conſideration's becoming the object of a moral philoſopher's diſcuſſion. No one can be more fitly calculated for examining thoroughly into, and deſcribing expreſſively, man in that ſtate, than he who is choſen by a learned body, as the moſt fit to point out and enforce thoſe moral duties, of which the ſocial form ſo principal a part. The learned author has accordingly handled this ſubject in the moſt maſterly manner; the work abounds with ſubtle thought, ingenious ſentiment, and extenſive knowledge, and is written with a force, perſpicuity, and elegance, which is ſeldom met with in modern performances.

Strong as this teſtimony in favour of the ſubject before us, and this prejudice in favour of the author who has handled it, may appear; the reading of a very few pages of the work will, we think, ſufficiently juſtify our opinion. Mr. Ferguſon has given us almoſt every thing relative to this ſubject, which has been already advanced by others, (except their whims and caprices) in ſuch a light as to make it almoſt entirely his own. He has added many things originally his own, which would alone be ſufficient to entitle him to the praiſe of every deep and ſubtle inveſtigator of the human mind. The ſtile, without any ſacrifice from method, is ſuch as was due to the dignity of the ſubject, and might have been expected from his rank in the republic of letters.

The work is divided into ſix parts, each of which branches into ſeveral ſections. The firſt part treats of the general characteriſtics of human nature; the ſecond, of the hiſtory of rude nations; the third, of the hiſtory of policy and arts; the fourth, of conſequences that reſult from the advancement of civil and commercial arts; the fifth, of the decline of nations; the ſixth, of corruption and political ſlavery. The propriety of this diviſion is too obvious to require its being pointed out; and that of the ſeveral parts into ſections does not yield to it.

Many of the authors who have written on man, and thoſe too ſome of the moſt ingenious, have ſet out by conſidering him as an animal, ſolitary by nature; and others, not ſatisfied with this blindneſs to what we read and ſee of his condition, in almoſt all ages and countries, have no leſs prepoſterouſly made him a miſchievous one. Nay, one in particular, has thrown out doubts of his having been originally a monkey or baboon.

Mr. Ferguſon, inſtead of adopting either of thoſe capital miſtakes, (by which we mean, the two firſt, the laſt being too ridiculous for ſerious animadverſion) has refuted them both in the moſt maſterly manner; by which he has atchieved more for the dignity of human nature, as well as for the intereſts of mankind, than had been done by all the writers who had gone before him in this walk.

Not-

Notwithſtanding the pleaſure we have received from this performance, and the eſteem with which we regard the author; we cannot take leave of him without expreſſing our ſurprize, that ſo able and zealous an advocate for benevolence ſhould have laviſhed ſo much praiſe on the Spartan government; a government, which, beſides many other enormities in the very frame of it, not only tolerated, but enjoined the moſt inhuman cruelties to be inflicted on its innocent captives; that endeavoured to eradicate from its members all ſocial tenderneſs and domeſtic endearment, and on every occaſion to ſtifle the voice of nature, and the cries of humanity *.

We are now to give a ſpecimen of Mr. Ferguſon's work; and the beſt we think we can give, will be ſome extracts from his ſections 'of the queſtion relating to the 'ſtate of nature,' and 'of the 'moral ſentiments;' in treating of which he has ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed himſelf; and which, as they will ſerve to give an idea of the work, will alſo greatly contribute to the entertainment, if not inſtruction, of ſuch of our readers, as have not ſeen the original. We are ſorry that we are obliged for want of room to leave out any part of them.

Extracts from the ſection of the queſtion relating to the ſtate of nature.

Natural productions are generally formed by degrees. Vegetables grow from a tender ſhoot, and animals from an infant ſtate. The latter being deſtined to act, extend their operations as their powers increaſe: they exhibit a progreſs in what they perform, as well as in the faculties they acquire. This progreſs in the caſe of man is continued to a greater extent than in that of any other animal. Not only the individual advances from infancy to manhood, but the ſpecies itſelf from rudeneſs to civilization. Hence the ſuppoſed departure of mankind from the ſtate of their nature; hence our conjectures and different opinions of what man muſt have been in the firſt age of his being. The poet, the hiſtorian, and the moraliſt, frequently allude to this ancient time; and under the emblems of gold or of iron, repreſent a condition, and a manner of life, from which mankind have either degenerated, or on which they have greatly improved. On either ſuppoſition, the firſt ſtate of our nature muſt have borne no reſemblance to what men have exhibited in any ſubſequent period; hiſtorical monuments, even of the earlieſt date, are to be conſidered as novelties; and the moſt common eſtabliſhments of human ſociety are to be claſſed among the incroachments which fraud, oppreſſion, or a buſy invention, have made upon the reign of nature, by which the chief of our grievances or bleſſings were equally with-held.

Among the writers who have attempted to diſtinguiſh, in the human character, its original qualities, and to point out the limits

* See a curious account of the ancient Lacedemonians, in the 3d vol. of our Regiſter, for the year 1760.

between nature and art, ſome have repreſented mankind in their firſt condition, as poſſeſſed of mere animal ſenſibility, without any exerciſe of the faculties that render them ſuperior to the brutes, without any political union, without any means of explaining their ſentiments, and even without poſſeſſing any of the apprehenſions and paſſions which the voice and the geſture are ſo well fitted to expreſs. Others have made the ſtate of nature to conſiſt in perpetual wars, kindled by competition for dominion and intereſt, where every individual had a ſeparate quarrel with his kind, and where the preſence of a fellow-creature was the ſignal of battle.—

If both the earlieſt and the lateſt accounts collected from every quarter of the earth, repreſent mankind as aſſembled in troops and companies; and the individual always joined by affection to one party, while he is poſſibly oppoſed to another; employed in the exerciſe of recollection and foreſight; inclined to communicate his own ſentiments, and to be made acquainted with thoſe of others; theſe facts muſt be admitted as the foundation of all our reaſoning relative to man. His mixed diſpoſition to friendſhip or enmity, his reaſon, his uſe of language and articulate ſounds, like the ſhape and the erect poſition of his body, are to be conſidered as ſo many attributes of his nature: they are to be retained in his deſcription, as the wing and the paw are in that of the eagle and the lion, and as different degrees of fierceneſs, vigilance, timidity, or ſpeed, are made to occupy a place in the natural hiſtory of different animals.

If the queſtion be put, What the mind of man could perform, when left to itſelf, and without the aid of any foreign direction? we are to look for our anſwer in the hiſtory of mankind. Particular experiments which have been found ſo uſeful in eſtabliſhing the principles of other ſciences, could probably, on this ſubject, teach us nothing important, or new: we are to take the hiſtory of every active being from his conduct in the ſituation to which he is formed, not from his appearance in any forced or uncommon condition; a wild man therefore, caught in the woods, where he had always lived apart from his ſpecies, is a ſingular inſtance, not a ſpecimen of any general character. As the anatomy of an eye which has never received the impreſſions of light, or that of an ear which has never felt the impulſe of ſounds, would probably exhibit defects in the very ſtructure of the organs themſelves, ariſing from their not being applied to their proper functions; ſo any particular caſe of this ſort would only ſhew in what degree the powers of apprehenſion and ſentiment could exiſt where they had not been employed, and what would be the defects and imbecilities of a heart in which the emotions that pertain to ſociety had never been felt.

Mankind are to be taken in groups, as they have always ſubſiſted. The hiſtory of the individual is but a detail of the ſentiments and thoughts he has entertained in the view of his ſpecies;

cies: and every experiment relative to this ſubject ſhould be made with entire ſocieties, not with ſingle men. We have every reaſon however, to believe, that in the caſe of ſuch an experiment made, we ſhall ſuppoſe with a colony of children tranſplanted from the nurſery, and left to form a ſociety apart, untaught and undiſciplined, we ſhould only have the ſame things repeated, which, in ſo many different parts of the earth, have been tranſacted already. The members of our little ſociety would feed and ſleep, would herd together and play, would have a language of their own, would quarrel and divide, would be to one another the moſt important objects of the ſcene, and, in the ardour of their friendſhips and competitions, would overlook their perſonal danger, and ſuſpend the care of their ſelf-preſervation. Has not the human race been planted like the colony in queſtion? who has directed their courſe? whoſe inſtruction have they heard; or whoſe example have they followed?—

It would be ridiculous to affirm, as a diſcovery, that the ſpecies of the horſe was probably never the ſame with that of the lion; yet, in oppoſition to what has dropped from the pens of eminent writers, we are obliged to obſerve, that men have always appeared among animals a diſtinct and a ſuperior race; that neither the poſſeſſion of ſimilar organs, nor the approximations of ſhape, nor the uſe of the hand, nor the continued intercourſe with this ſovereign artiſt, has enabled any other ſpecies to blend their nature or their inventions with his; that in his rudeſt ſtate, he is found to be above them; and in his greateſt degeneracy, never deſcends to their level. He is, in ſhort, a man in every condition; and we can learn nothing of his nature from the analogy of other animals. If we would know him, we muſt attend to himſelf, to the courſe of his life, and the tenor of his conduct. With him the ſociety appears to be as old as the individual, and the uſe of the tongue as univerſal as that of the hand or the foot. If there was a time in which he had his acquaintance with his own ſpecies to make, and his faculties to acquire, it is a time of which we have no record, and in relation to which our opinions can ſerve no purpoſe, and are ſupported by no evidence.—

We ſpeak of art as diſtinguiſhed from nature; but art itſelf is natural to man. He is in ſome meaſure the artificer of his own frame, as well as his fortune, and is deſtined, from the firſt age of his being, to invent and contrive. He applies the ſame talents to a variety of purpoſes, and acts nearly the ſame part in very different ſcenes. He would always be improving on his ſubject, and he carries this intention wherever he moves, through the ſtreets of the populous city, or the wilds of the foreſt.—To whatever length he has carried his artifice, there he ſeems to enjoy the conveniences that ſuit his nature, and to have found the condition to which he is deſtined. The tree which an American, on the banks of the Oroonoko, has choſen to climb, for the retreat and the lodgment of his family, is to him a convenient dwelling. The ſopha, the vaulted dome, and the

colonade, do not more effectually content their native inhabitant.

If we are aſked therefore, Where the ſtate of nature is to be found? we may anſwer, It is here; and it matters not whether we are underſtood to ſpeak in the iſland of Great Britain, at the Cape of Good Hope, or the Straits of Magellan. While this active being is in the train of employing his talents, and of operating on the ſubjects around him, all ſituations are equally natural. If we are told, that vice, at leaſt, is contrary to nature; we may anſwer, it is worſe; it is folly and wretchedneſs. But if nature is only oppoſed to art, in what ſituation of the human race are the footſteps of art unknown? In the condition of the ſavage, as well as in that of the citizen, are many proofs of human invention; and in either is not any permanent ſtation, but a mere ſtage through which this travelling being is deſtined to paſs. If the palace be unnatural, the cottage is ſo no leſs; and the higheſt refinements of political and moral apprehenſion, are not more artificial in their kind, than the firſt operations of ſentiment and reaſon.

If we admit that man is ſuſceptible of improvement, and has in himſelf a principle of progreſſion, and a deſire of perfection, it appears improper to ſay, that he has quitted the ſtate of his nature, when he has begun to proceed; or that he finds a ſtation for which he was not intended, while, like other animals, he only follows the diſpoſition, and employs the powers that nature has given.

The lateſt efforts of human invention are but a continuation of certain devices which were practiſed in the earlieſt ages of the world, and in the rudeſt ſtate of mankind. What the ſavage projects, or obſerves, in the foreſt, are the ſteps which led nations, more advanced, from the architecture of the cottage to that of the palace, and conducted the human mind from the perceptions of ſenſe to the general concluſions of ſcience.

Extracts from the ſelection on moral ſentiment.

Upon a ſlight obſervation of what paſſes in human life, we ſhould be apt to conclude, that the care of ſubſiſtence is the principal ſpring of human actions. This conſideration leads to the invention and practice of mechanical arts, it ſerves to diſtinguiſh amuſement from buſineſs; and, with many, ſcarcely admits into competition any other ſubject of purſuit or attention. The mighty advantages of property and fortune, when ſtript of the recommendations they derive from vanity, or the more ſerious regards to independance and power, only mean a proviſion that is made for animal enjoyment; and if our ſolicitude on this ſubject were removed, not only the toils of the mechanic, but the ſtudies of the learned, would ceaſe; every department of public buſineſs would become unneceſſary; every ſenate-houſe would be ſhut up, and every place deſerted.

Is man therefore, in reſpect to his object, to be claſſed with the mere brutes, and only to be diſtinguiſhed

tinguiſhed by faculties that qualify him to multiply contrivances for the ſupport and convenience of animal life, and by the extent of a fancy that renders the care of animal preſervation to him more burdenſome than it is to the herd with which he ſhares in the bounty of nature? If this were his caſe, the joy which attends on ſucceſs, or the griefs which ariſe from diſappointment, would make the ſum of his paſſions. The torrent that waſted, or the inundation that enriched his poſſeſſions, would give him all the emotion with which he is ſeized, on the occaſion of a wrong by which his fortunes are impaired, or of a benefit by which they are preſerved and enlarged. His fellow-creatures would be conſidered merely as they affected his intereſt. Profit or loſs would ſerve to mark the event of every tranſaction; and the epithets *uſeful* or *detrimental* would ſerve to diſtinguiſh his mates in ſociety, as they do the tree which bears plenty of fruit, from that which ſerves only to cumber the ground, or intercept his view.

This, however, is not the hiſtory of our ſpecies. What comes from a fellow-creature is received with peculiar attention; and every language abounds with terms that expreſs ſomewhat in the tranſactions of men, different from ſucceſs and diſappointment. The boſom kindles in company, while the point of intereſt in view has nothing to inflame; and a matter frivolous in itſelf, becomes important, when it ſerves to bring to light the intentions and characters of men. The foreigner, who believed that Othello, on the ſtage, was enraged for the loſs of his handkerchief, was not more miſtaken, than the reaſoner who imputes any of the more vehement paſſions of men to the impreſſions of mere profit or loſs.

Men aſſemble to deliberate on buſineſs; they ſeparate from jealouſies of intereſt; but in their ſeveral colliſions, whether as friends or as enemies; a fire is ſtruck out which the regards to intereſt or ſafety cannot confine. The value of a favour is not meaſured when ſentiments of kindneſs are perceived; and the term *misfortune* has but a feeble meaning, when compared to that of *inſult* and *wrong*.

As actors or ſpectators, we are perpetually made to feel the difference of human conduct, and from a bare recital of tranſactions which have paſſed in ages and countries remote from our own, are moved with admiration and pity, or tranſported with indignation and rage. Our ſenſibility on this ſubject gives their charm, in retirement, to the relations of hiſtory, and to the fictions of poetry: ſends forth the tear of compaſſion, gives to the blood its briſkeſt movement, and to the eye its livelieſt glances of diſpleaſure or joy. It turns human life into an intereſting ſpectacle, and perpetually ſolicits even the indolent to mix, as opponents or friends, in the ſcenes which are acted before them. Joined to the powers of deliberation and reaſon, it conſtitutes the baſis of a moral nature; and whilſt it dictates the terms of praiſe and of blame, ſerves to claſs our fellow-creatures by the moſt admi-

rable

rable and engaging, or the moſt odious and contemptible, denominations.

It is pleaſant to find men, who, in their ſpeculations, deny the reality of moral diſtinctions, forget in detail the general poſitions they maintain, and give looſe to ridicule, indignation, and ſcorn, as if any of theſe ſentiments could have place, were the actions of men indifferent; and with acrimony pretend to detect the fraud by which moral reſtraints have been impoſed, as if to cenſure a fraud were not already to take a part on the ſide of morality.

Can we explain the principles upon which mankind adjudge the preference of characters, and upon which they indulge ſuch vehement emotions of admiration or contempt? If it be admitted that we cannot, are the facts leſs true? or muſt we ſuſpend the movements of the heart until they who are employed in framing ſyſtems of ſcience have diſcovered the principle from which thoſe movements proceed? If a finger burn, we care not for information on the properties of fire: if the heart be torn, or the mind overjoyed, we have not leiſure for ſpeculations on the ſubject of moral ſenſibility.——

If it be true, that men are united by inſtinct, that they act in ſociety from affections of kindneſs and friendſhip; if it be true, that even prior to acquaintance and habitude, men, as ſuch, are commonly to one another objects of attention, and ſome degree of regard; that while their proſperity is beheld with indifference, their afflictions are conſidered with commiſeration; if calamities be meaſured by the numbers and the qualities of men they involve: and if every ſuffering of a fellow-creature draws a crowd of attentive ſpectators; if even in the caſe of thoſe to whom we do not habitually wiſh any poſitive good, we are ſtill averſe to be the inſtruments of harm; it ſhould ſeem, that in theſe various appearances of an amicable diſpoſition, the foundations of a moral apprehenſion are ſufficiently laid, and the ſenſe of a right which we maintain for ourſelves, is by a movement of humanity and candour extended to our fellow-creatures.

What is it that prompts the tongue when we cenſure an act of cruelty or oppreſſion? What is it that conſtitutes our reſtraint from offences that tend to diſtreſs our fellow-creatures? It is probably, in both caſes, a particular application of that principle, which, in preſence of the ſorrowful, ſends forth the tear of compaſſion; and a combination of all thoſe ſentiments, which conſtitute a benevolent diſpoſition; and if not a reſolution to do good, at leaſt an averſion to be the inſtrument of harm.

It may be difficult, however, to enumerate the motives of all the cenſures and commendations which are applied to the actions of men. Even while we moralize, every diſpoſition of the human mind may have its ſhare in forming the judgement, and in prompting the tongue. As jealouſy is often the moſt watchful guardian of chaſtity, ſo malice is often the quickeſt to ſpy the failings of our neighbour. Envy, affectation, and vanity, may dictate the

the verdicts we give, and the worſt principles of our nature may be at the bottom of our pretended zeal for morality; but if we only mean to inquire, why they who are well diſpoſed to mankind, apprehend, in every inſtance, certain rights pertaining to their fellow-creatures, and why they applaud the conſideration that is paid to thoſe rights, we cannot perhaps aſſign a better reaſon, than that the perſon who applauds, is well diſpoſed to the welfare of the parties to whom his applauſes refer.

When we conſider, that the reality of any amicable propenſity in the human mind has been frequently conteſted; when we recollect the prevalence of intereſted competitions, with their attendant paſſions of jealouſy, envy, and malice; it may ſeem ſtrange to alledge, that love and compaſſion are the moſt powerful principles in the human breaſt: but they are deſtined, on many occaſions, to urge with the moſt irreſiſtible vehemence; and if the deſire of ſelf-preſervation be more conſtant and more uniform, theſe are a more plentiful ſource of enthuſiaſm, ſatisfaction, and joy. With a power, not inferior to that of reſentment and rage, they hurry the mind into every ſacrifice of intereſt, and bear it undiſmayed through every hardſhip and danger.

The diſpoſition on which friendſhip is grafted, glows with ſatisfaction in the hours of tranquillity, and is pleaſant, not only in its triumphs, but even in its ſorrows. It throws a grace on the external air, and, by its expreſſion on the countenance, compenſates for the want of beauty, or gives a charm which no complexion or features can equal. From this ſource the ſcenes of human life derive their principal felicity; and their imitations in poetry, their principal ornament. Deſcriptions of nature, even repreſentations of a vigorous conduct, and a manly courage, do not engage the heart, if they be not mixed with the exhibition of generous ſentiments, and the pathetic, which is found to ariſe in the ſtruggles, the triumphs, or the misfortunes of a tender affection. The death of Polites, in the Æneid, is not more affecting than that of many others who periſhed in the ruins of Troy; but the aged Priam was preſent when this laſt of his ſons was ſlain; and the agonies of grief and ſorrow force the parent from his retreat, to fall by the hand that ſhed the blood of his child. The pathetic of Homer conſiſts in exhibiting the force of affections, not in exciting mere terror and pity; paſſions he has never perhaps, in any inſtance, attempted to raiſe.——

After all, it muſt be confeſſed, that if a principle of affection to mankind, be the baſis of our moral approbation and diſlike, we ſometimes proceed in diſtributing applauſe or cenſure, without preciſely attending to the degree in which our fellow-creatures are hurt or obliged; and that, beſides the virtues of candour, friendſhip, generoſity, and public ſpirit, which bear an immediate reference to this principle, there are others which may ſeem to derive their commendation from a different ſource. Temperance, prudence, fortitude, are thoſe qualities likewiſe admired from a principle of regard

regard to our fellow creatures: Why not, ſince they render men happy in themſelves, and uſeful to others? He who is qualified to promote the welfare of mankind, is neither a ſot, a fool, nor a coward. Can it be more clearly expreſſed, that temperance, prudence, and fortitude, are neceſſary to the character we love and admire? I know well why I ſhould wiſh for them in myſelf; and why likewiſe I ſhould wiſh for them in my friend, and in every perſon who is an object of my affection. But to what purpoſe ſeek for reaſons of approbation, where qualities are ſo neceſſary to our happineſs, and ſo great a part in the perfection of our nature? We muſt ceaſe to eſteem ourſelves, and to diſtinguiſh what is excellent, when ſuch qualifications incur our neglect.

A perſon of an affectionate mind, poſſeſſed of a maxim, That he himſelf, as an individual, is no more than a part of the whole that demands his regard, has found, in that principle, a ſufficient foundation for all the virtues; for a contempt of animal pleaſures, that would ſupplant his principal enjoyment; for an equal contempt of danger or pain, that come to ſtop his purſuits of public good. "A vehement and ſteady affection magnifies its object, and leſſens every difficulty or danger that ſtands in the way." "Aſk thoſe who have been in love," ſays Epictetus, "they will know that I ſpeak truth."

An Eſſay on Crimes and Puniſhments; tranſlated from the Italian: with a Commentary attributed to Monſieur de Voltaire; tranſlated from the French. One vol. 8vo.

THE merit of the eſſay before us is ſo generally known and allowed, that it may ſeem unneceſſary to inform our readers, that it has gained the attention of all ranks of people in almoſt every part of Europe; and that few books on any ſubject have ever been more generally read, or more univerſally applauded. This work was written in Italian by the Marquis Beccaria of Milan. The tranſlator informs us in his preface, that it was read at different times to a ſociety of learned men in that city, at whoſe deſire it was publiſhed. He alſo tells us, that it paſſed through ſix editions in the original language, in eighteen months; that it was tranſlated into French, and that the tranſlation was alſo re-printed ſeveral times.

Though the author ſeems to have been ſtudiouſly careful not to give any room for offence in point of expreſſion, yet the freedom he has taken with the eſtabliſhed forms of government in Italy, made it prudent not to put his name to this book; from the ſame cauſe, he has ſince thought proper to quit his native country, and has for a conſiderable time paſt made Paris the place of his abode. The commentary which is joined to this eſſay is attributed to Voltaire; and it ſeems to bear ſuch evident marks of his peculiar manner, as leave little room to doubt his being the author of it.

A few ſpecimens of the writer's argu-

arguments, and of his manner of handling his ſubject, will be more pleaſing to our readers, than any comment we ſhould make on it. In his introduction, he makes the following general reflections.

" If we look into hiſtory we ſhall find, that laws, which are, or ought to be, conventions between men in a ſtate of freedom, have been, for the moſt part, the work of the paſſions of a few, or the conſequences of a fortuitous, or temporary neceſſity; not dictated by a cool examiner of human nature, who knew how to collect in one point, the actions of a multitude, and had this only end in view, *the greateſt happineſs of the greateſt number*. Happy are thoſe few nations, who have not waited, till the ſlow ſucceſſion of human viciſſitudes, ſhould, from the extremity of evil, produce a tranſition to good; but by prudent laws, have facilitated the progreſs from one to the other! and how great are the obligations due from mankind to that philoſopher, who from the obſcurity of his cloſet, had the courage to ſcatter amongſt the multitude the ſeeds of uſeful truths, ſo long unfruitful!

The art of printing has diffuſed the knowledge of thoſe philoſophical truths, by which the relations between ſovereigns and their ſubjects, and between nations, are diſcovered. By this knowledge, commerce is animated, and there has ſprung up a ſpirit of emulation and induſtry, worthy of rational beings. Theſe are the produce of this enlightened age; but the cruelty of puniſhments, and the irregularity of proceedings in criminal caſes, ſo principal a part of the legiſlation, and ſo much neglected throughout Europe, has hardly ever been called in queſtion. Errors, accumulated through many centuries, have never yet been expoſed by aſcending to general principles; nor has the force of acknowledged truths been ever oppoſed to the unbounded licentiouſneſs of ill-directed power, which has continually produced ſo many authorized examples of the moſt unfeeling barbarity. Surely, the groans of the weak, ſacrificed to the cruel ignorance, and indolence of the powerful; the barbarous torments laviſhed, and multiplied with uſeleſs ſeverity, for crimes either not proved, or in their nature impoſſible; the filth, and horrors of a priſon, increaſed by the moſt cruel tormentor of the miſerable, uncertainty, ought to have rouſed the attention of thoſe, whoſe buſineſs is to direct the opinions of mankind."

In the ſecond chapter, " of the right to puniſh," he proceeds as follows.

" Every puniſhment, which does not ariſe from abſolute neceſſity, ſays the great Monteſquieu, is tyrannical. A propoſition which may be made more general, thus: Every act of authority of one man over another, for which there is not an abſolute neceſſity, is tyrannical. It is upon this then, that the ſovereign's right to puniſh crimes is founded; that is, upon the neceſſity of defending the public liberty, entruſted to his care, from the uſurpation of individuals; and puniſhments are juſt, in proportion as the liberty, preſerved by the ſovereign, is ſacred and valuable.

Let us conſult the human heart, and there we ſhall find the foundation

dation of the ſovereign's right to puniſh; for no advantage in moral policy can be laſting, which is not founded on the indelible ſentiments of the heart of man. Whatever law deviates from this principle will always meet with a reſiſtance, which will deſtroy it in the end; for the ſmalleſt force, continually applied, will overcome the moſt violent motion communicated to bodies.

No man ever gave up his liberty, merely for the good of the public. Such a chimera exiſts only in romances. Every individual wiſhes, if poſſible, to be exempt from the compacts that bind the reſt of mankind.

The multiplication of mankind, though ſlow, being too great for the means, which the earth, in its natural ſtate, offered to ſatisfy neceſſities, which every day became more numerous, obliged men to ſeparate again, and form new ſocieties. Theſe naturally oppoſed the firſt, and a ſtate of war was transferred from individuals to nations.

Thus it was neceſſity that forced men to give up a part of their liberty; it is certain then, that every individual would chuſe to put into the public ſtock the ſmalleſt portion poſſible; as much only as was ſufficient to engage others to defend it. The aggregate of theſe, the ſmalleſt portions poſſible, forms the right of puniſhing: all that extends beyond this is abuſe, not juſtice.

Obſerve, that by *juſtice* I underſtand nothing more, than that bond, which is neceſſary to keep the intereſt of individuals united; without which, men would return to their original ſtate of barbarity. All puniſhments, which exceed the neceſſity of preſerving this bond, are in their nature unjuſt. We ſhould be cautious how we aſſociate with the word *juſtice*, an idea of any thing real, ſuch as a phyſical power, or a being that actually exiſts. I do not, by any means, ſpeak of the juſtice of God, which is of another kind, and refers immediately to rewards and puniſhments in a life to come.—

Whoever reads, with a philoſophic eye, the hiſtory of nations, and their laws, will generally find, that the ideas of virtue and vice, of a good or a bad citizen, change with the revolution of ages; not in proportion to the alteration of circumſtances, and conſequently conformable to the common good; but in proportion to the paſſions and errors by which the different law-givers were ſucceſſively influenced. He will frequently obſerve, that the paſſions and vices of one age, are the foundation of the morality of the following; that violent paſſion, the offspring of fanaticiſm and enthuſiaſm, being weakened by time, which reduces all the phenomena of the natural and moral world to an equality, become, by degrees, the prudence of the age, and an uſeful inſtrument in the hands of the powerful or artful politician. Hence the uncertainty of our notions of honour and virtue; an uncertainty which will ever remain, becauſe they change with the revolutions of time, and names ſurvive the things they originally ſignified; they change with the boundaries of ſtates, which are often the ſame both in phyſical and moral geography.

Pleaſure and pain are the only

ſprings of action in beings endowed with ſenſibility. Even amongſt the motives which incite men to acts of religion, the inviſible legiſlator has ordained rewards and puniſhments. From a partial diſtribution of theſe, will ariſe that contradiction, ſo little obſerved, becauſe ſo common; I mean, that of puniſhing by the laws, the crimes which the laws have occaſioned. If an equal puniſhment be ordained for two crimes that injure ſociety in different degrees, there is nothing to deter men from committing the greater, as often as it is attended with greater advantage.—

The foregoing reflections authoriſe me to aſſert, that crimes are only to be meaſured by the injury done to ſociety.

They err, therefore, who imagine that a crime is greater or leſs, according to the intention of the perſon by whom it is committed; for this will depend on the actual impreſſion of objects on the ſenſes, and on the previous diſpoſition of the mind; both which will vary in different perſons, and even in the ſame perſon at different times, according to the ſucceſſion of ideas, paſſions, and circumſtances. Upon that ſyſtem, it would be neceſſary to form, not only a particular code for every individual, but a new penal law for every crime. Men, often with the beſt intention, do the greateſt injury to ſociety, and with the worſt, do it the moſt eſſential ſervices.

Others have eſtimated crimes rather by the dignity of the perſon offended, than by their conſequences to ſociety. If this were the true ſtandard, the ſmalleſt irreverence to the divine Being ought to be puniſhed with infinitely more ſeverity, than the aſſaſſination of a monarch.

In ſhort, others have imagined, that the greatneſs of the ſin ſhould aggravate the crime. But the fallacy of this opinion will appear on the ſlighteſt conſideration of the relations between man and man, and between God and man. The relations between man and man, are relations of equality. Neceſſity alone hath produced, from the oppoſition of private paſſions and intereſts, the idea of public utility, which is the foundation of human juſtice. The others are relations of dependence, between an imperfect creature and his creator, the moſt perfect of beings, who has reſerved to himſelf the ſole right of being both lawgiver, and judge; for he alone can, without injuſtice, be at the ſame time, both one and the other. If he hath decreed eternal puniſhments for thoſe who diſobey his will, ſhall an inſect dare to put himſelf in the place of divine juſtice, or pretend to puniſh for the Almighty, who is himſelf all-ſufficient; who cannot receive impreſſions of pleaſure, or pain, and who alone, of all other beings, acts without being acted upon? The degree of ſin depends on the malignity of the heart, which is impenetrable to finite beings. How then can the degree of ſin ſerve as a ſtandard to determine the degree of crimes? If that were admitted, men may puniſh when God pardons, and pardon when God condemns; and thus act in oppoſition to the Supreme Being.—

We have proved, then, that crimes are to be eſtimated by *the injury done to ſociety*. This is one of thoſe palpable truths, which, though

though evident to the meaneſt capacity, yet, by a combination of circumſtances, are only known to a few thinking men in every nation, and in every age. But opinions, worthy only of the deſpotiſm of Aſia, and paſſions, armed with power and authority, have, generally by inſenſibile and ſometimes by violent impreſſions on the timid credulity of men, effaced thoſe ſimple ideas, which perhaps conſtituted the firſt philoſophy of infant ſociety. Happily the philoſophy of the preſent enlightened age ſeems again to conduct us to the ſame principles, and with that degree of certainty, which is obtained by a rational examination, and repeated experience.——

The opinion, that every member of ſociety has a right to do any thing, that is not contrary to the laws, without fearing any other inconveniences, than thoſe which are the natural conſequences of the action itſelf, is a political dogma, which ſhould be defended by the laws, inculcated by the magiſtrates, and believed by the people; a ſacred dogma, without which there can be no lawful ſociety; a juſt recompence for our ſacrifice of that univerſal liberty of action, common to all ſenſible beings, and only limited by our natural powers. By this principle, our minds become free, active, and vigorous; by this alone we are inſpired with that virtue which knows no fear, ſo different from that pliant prudence, worthy of thoſe only who can bear a precarious exiſtence.—

I do not know of any exception to this general axiom, that *Every member of ſociety ſhould know when he is criminal, and when innocent.* If cenſors, and, in general, arbitrary magiſtrates, be neceſſary in any government, it proceeds from ſome fault in the conſtitution. The uncertainty of crimes hath ſacrificed more victims to ſecret tyranny, than have ever ſuffered by public and ſolemn cruelty.

What are, in general, the proper puniſhments for crimes? Is the puniſhment of death really *uſeful*, or neceſſary for the ſafety, or good order of ſociety? Are tortures and torments conſiſtent with *juſtice*, or do they anſwer the *end* propoſed by the laws? Which is the beſt method of preventing crimes? Are the ſame puniſhments equally uſeful at all times? What influence have they on manners? Theſe problems ſhould be ſolved with that geometrical preciſion, which the miſt of ſophiſtry, the ſeduction of eloquence, and the timidity of doubt are unable to reſiſt.

If I have no other merit than that of having firſt preſented to my country, with a greater degree of evidence, what other nations have written, and are beginning to practiſe, I ſhall account myſelf fortunate; but if, by ſupporting the rights of mankind, and of invincible truth, I ſhall contribute to ſave from the agonies of death one unfortunate victim of tyrrany, or of ignorance, equally fatal; his bleſſing and tears of tranſport, will be a ſufficient conſolation to me for the contempt of all mankind."

We wiſh that the extent of our plan could admit of our giving more extracts from this favourite writer; his unbounded philanthropy, and the eloquence and tenderneſs with which he pleads the cauſe of humanity, muſt always procure him the moſt favourable reception.

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